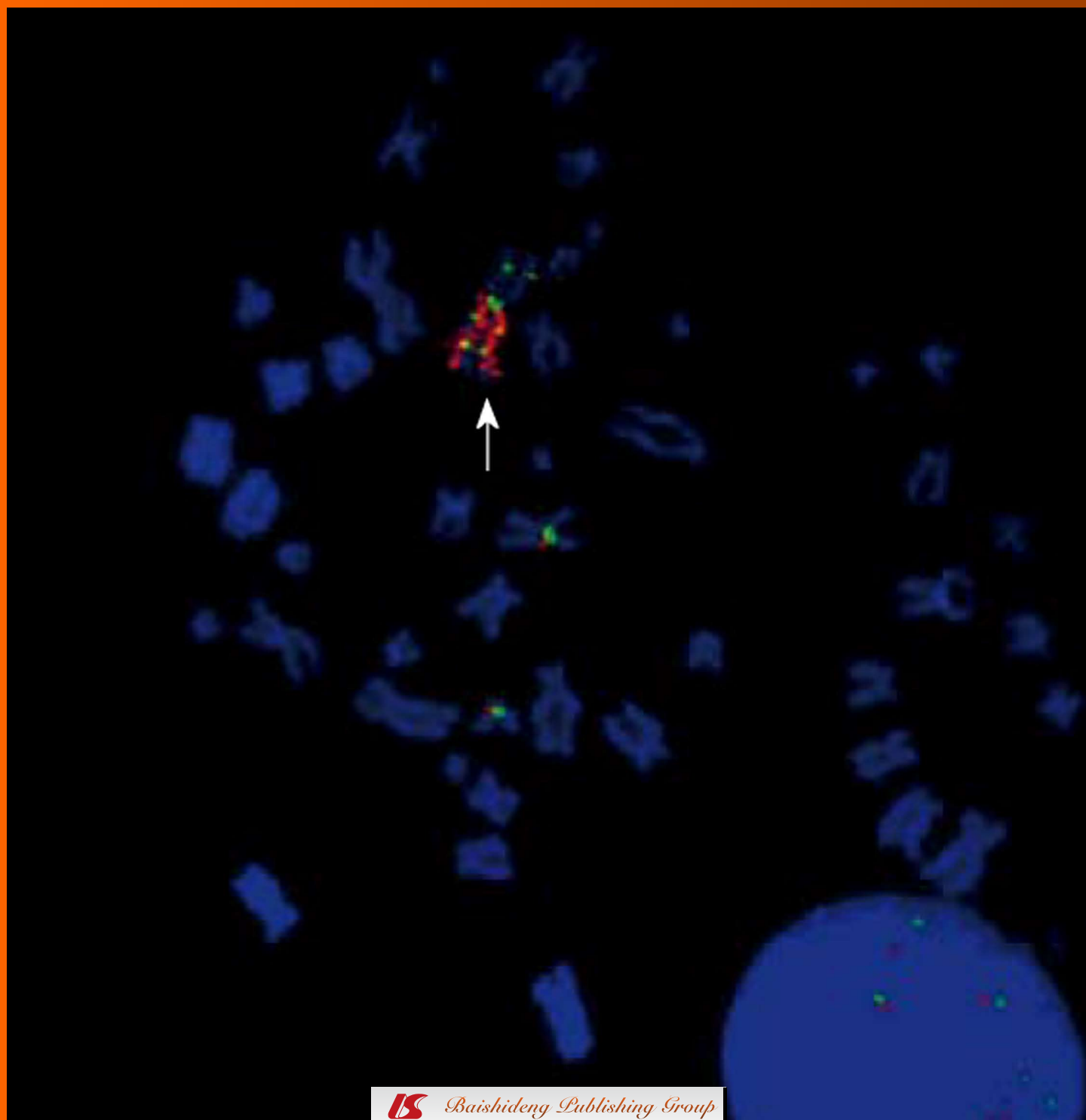


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How to protect liver graft with nitric oxide

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Abstract

Organ preservation and ischemia reperfusion injury associated with liver transplantation play an important role in the induction of graft injury. One of the earliest events associated with the reperfusion injury is endothelial cell dysfunction. It is generally accepted that endothelial nitric oxide synthase (e-NOS) is cell-protective by mediating vasodilatation, whereas inducible nitric oxide synthase mediates liver graft injury after transplantation. We conducted a critical review of the literature evaluating the potential applications of regulating and promoting e-NOS activity in liver preservation and transplantation, showing the most current evidence

to support the concept that enhanced bioavailability of NO derived from e-NOS is detrimental to ameliorate graft liver preservation, as well as preventing subsequent graft reperfusion injury. This review deals mainly with the beneficial effects of promoting "endogenous" pathways for NO generation, *via* e-NOS inducer drugs in cold preservation solution, surgical strategies such as ischemic preconditioning, and alternative "exogenous" pathways that focus on the enrichment of cold storage liquid with NO donors. Finally, we also provide a basic bench-to-bed side summary of the liver physiology and cell signalling mechanisms that account for explaining the e-NOS protective effects in liver preservation and transplantation.

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Key words: Cold ischemia reperfusion injury; Endothelial nitric oxide synthase; Nitric oxide; Liver graft preservation; Ischemic preconditioning; Liver transplantation

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INTRODUCTION

Ischemia-reperfusion (IR) injury during liver transplantation (LT) is a complex, multi-factorial process in which numerous mediators and a variety of cells interact, leading to tissue damage. It is one of the major cause of both initial poor function and primary non-function of liver allograft, and is responsible for 81% of re-transplantations during the first week after surgery. An intricate network of hepatic and extra-hepatic mechanisms is involved in the genesis of hepatic IR^[1-3].

Cold storage and warm reperfusion are unavoidable steps in transplantation and all grafts undergo some degree of IR injury. The cascade of events involves microvasculature (sinusoidal endothelial cells or SEC), Kupffer cells, Ito cells, parenchyma (hepatocytes) and bile ducts. Cold ischemia during organ storage, which is intentionally applied to reduce the metabolic activity of cells in order to preserve the graft before its transplantation, has a substantial effect on graft function. Also, warm ischemia that begins at implantation has an additional negative impact on graft function and outcome. Whatever the type of attack, liver graft damage initiated during the ischemic phases is exacerbated after reperfusion with oxygen and the reintroduction of blood elements.

Although our understanding of the pathophysiology of IR injury is only partial, many response elements indicate that vascular endothelium disruption, the immune response, oxidative mediators, and several cell-death pathways all play important roles. A variety of mediators have been implicated, including reactive oxygen species (ROS) and inflammatory mediators tumor necrosis factor (TNF)- α , interleukin (IL)-6, IL-1, transforming growth factor- β , interferon- γ and endothelin (ET)-1. Furthermore, complement and chemokines are also released, which leads to leukocyte recruitment and activation. Upregulated adhesion molecules, including intercellular adhesion molecule 1 and E-selectin, enhance endothelial-immune cell interactions. ROS directly injure many cytoskeletal and functional cellular components, causing cell damage. After IR, direct endothelial damage and abnormal vascular tone occurs as a result of an imbalanced sensitivity to mediators of vasoconstriction and vasodilation, such as ET-1/nitric oxide (NO). Endothelial injury also causes cell swelling and narrowing of the vascular lumen, further reducing blood flow. Finally, key regulators of apoptosis, such as caspases, are upregulated resulting in increased cell death.

It is now largely appreciated that IR associated with LT leads to a rapid endothelial dysfunction characterized by a marked decrease in NO production^[4,6]. The decrease in NO bioavailability occurs within the first few minutes after reperfusion, and appears to be due to decreased synthesis of NO by NO synthase (NOS), enhanced inactivation of NO by the overproduction of superoxide anion (O₂⁻), or both. Experimental studies emphasize that it is essential to minimize the deregulation of hepatic microcirculation during LT^[7].

NO is a free-radical diatomic gas of low molecular weight with an unpaired electron^[8]. It is highly lipophilic, allowing it to permeate quickly across the cell membranes. Its half-life *in vivo* is a few seconds, and it is rapidly converted to stable nitrites (NO₂⁻) and nitrates (NO₃⁻)^[8]. Endogenous NO is synthesized from the amino acid precursor L-arginine in an oxidation reaction, catalyzed by the NOS enzymes. This complex reaction requires the presence of co-substrates O₂ and NAD(P)H (nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate reduced), as well as many cofactors such as flavin adenine dinucleotide, flavin

mononucleotide and BH₄ (tetrahydrobiopterin)^[8,9]. There are three isoforms of NOS expressed in the liver in different cells and in different conditions, namely endothelial NOS (e-NOS), neuronal NOS (n-NOS) and inducible NOS (i-NOS). Both e-NOS and n-NOS are constitutively present in liver. The exact role of n-NOS in the pathophysiology of IR injury during LT remains to be established^[10]. n-NOS has been observed within neurons innervating the portal tracts by histochemical methods, and several authors believe that this protein is scarcely expressed in the liver^[11,12]. In contrast to inducible NOS, constitutive NOS activation requires Ca²⁺.

Like any important signaling molecule, NO diffuses freely across cell membranes. Under physiological conditions, NO binds to soluble guanylate cyclase inside cells and then induces the production of large quantities of cGMP (guanosine 5'-monophosphate), which then triggers the signal (Figure 1)^[13]. *In vivo*, NO is inactivated mainly by superoxide anion, but other pathways could be involved. The first pathway involves the autoxidation of NO to NO₂⁻ and then to NO₃⁻. Other pathways may be mediated by metal-catalyzed oxidation reactions. The copper-containing protein ceruloplasmin (P-Cu²⁺) has been shown to rapidly oxidize NO to NO₂⁻ in physiological conditions^[14,15]. In addition to the P-Cu²⁺-mediated reaction, ferrous deoxygenated hemoglobin (Hb-Fe²⁺O₂; oxyhemoglobin) rapidly converts NO to NO₃⁻.

e-NOS ACTIVITY AND e-NOS-DERIVED NO PRODUCTION IN LT: PATHOPHYSIOLOGICAL ASPECTS

e-NOS is constitutively expressed in venous and arterial endothelial cells and it produces small quantities of NO (at picomolar levels)^[16]. It is the main source of NO in endothelial cells under physiologic conditions^[9]. e-NOS is also induced in response to specific extracellular stimuli, such as shear stress^[17] and metabolic stress (Figure 1)^[18]. e-NOS is localized to the caveolae^[19,20], which are microdomains of the plasma membrane that have been implicated in a variety of cellular functions, including signal transduction. Caveolin proteins are the major coat proteins of caveolae, and in endothelial cells e-NOS binds to caveolin-1. Caveolin-1 and other peptides from the caveola region directly inhibit e-NOS activity^[21,22]. This complex membrane structure is sensitive to the fluid pressure on the membrane.

The e-NOS activation can also be triggered through the signalling pathway involving serine/threonine kinase Akt [or protein kinase B (PKB)], which in turn is stimulated by the phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K)^[23,24]. e-NOS is one of the targets of Akt. An important step in this activation is the phosphorylation by Akt of the serine residue in position 1179 (bovine sequence) or serine 1177 (human sequence) of the e-NOS enzyme^[25,26]. Therefore, Akt-dependent e-NOS phosphorylation may be an important mechanism in the attenuation of IR injury after

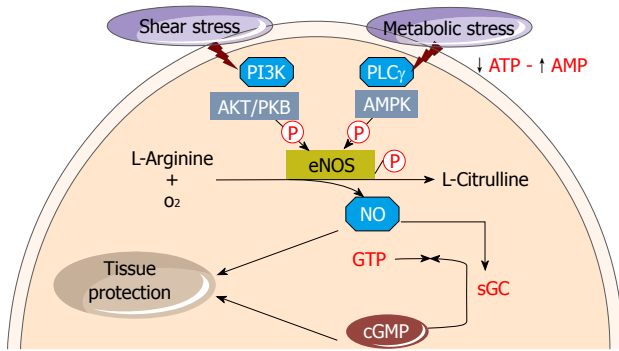


Figure 1 Endothelial nitric oxide synthase-derived nitric oxide synthesis. Shear stress leads to endothelial nitric oxide synthase (e-NOS) phosphorylation and through pathway involving phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K) and Akt. Metabolic stress also phosphorylates e-NOS through the adenosine monophosphate kinase (AMPK) route. The coordination of signalling through these converging pathways allows for e-NOS activation. L-arginine is converted in the endothelium monolayer by the constitutive e-NOS to nitric oxide (NO) and L-citrulline. NO diffuses into both the vessel lumen and the vessel wall, thereby activating soluble guanylate cyclase (sGC) to produce cyclic guanosine monophosphate (cGMP) from guanosine 5'-triphosphate (GTP). NO in concert with cGMP involve tissue protection.

LT. Treatment of liver grafts with adenovirus encoding for myr-Akt improves biochemical and cytoprotective parameters after orthotopic LT in pigs, in comparison to uninfected groups^[27].

Recent reports demonstrate that metabolic stress can elicit adenosine monophosphate protein kinase (AMPK), which stimulates phosphorylation of e-NOS protein and increases NO bioavailability in endothelial cells^[18,28,29]. The e-NOS-derived NO, in turn, decreases hepatic levels of ET-1, improves hepatic microcirculation and significantly attenuates TNF- α hepatic expression and, remarkably, reduces the activation of caspase-8 and caspase-3 after OLT^[30].

In addition to its key role in vascular tone regulation, studies have shown that NO is involved in several other protective routes (Figure 2). Animal studies have shown that early in the reperfusion period, tissue damage appears to be associated with decreased NO availability related to e-NOS down-regulation^[27,31]. Similarly, the use of NOS inhibitors leads to IR damage^[32]. It has been demonstrated that e-NOS-derived NO inhibits the production and release of several endothelial vasoconstrictor factors, including ET-1^[33,34]. NO also interferes with the adhesion and aggregation of platelets, adhesion of leukocytes and monocytes to endothelial cells in vessel walls^[35,36]. It also modulates the expression of pro-inflammatory molecules, such as vascular cell adhesion molecule-1 and monocyte chemoattractant protein 1. Furthermore, NO is emerging as an endogenous inhibitor of TNF- α . NO decreases endothelial permeability and also exerts anti-mitogenic effects in vascular smooth muscle cells by inhibiting their growth and proliferation.

However, other lines of evidence suggest that ROS production after LT reduces e-NOS activation, which becomes uncoupled and perturbs e-NOS-derived NO homeostasis^[37] (Figure 3). In parallel, i-NOS is transcription-

ally up-regulated in all liver cells, leading to the production of large amounts of NO for persistent periods^[37]. Excessive NO generation can be detrimental, because it may alter systemic vascular tone and reactivity, leading to hypotension and circulatory shock^[38]. In addition, the generation of peroxynitrite (ONOO⁻), a potent oxidant formed by reacting NO with O₂⁻^[39], could also cause cell injury through lipid peroxidation, direct inhibition of the mitochondrial respiratory chain^[40,41], inhibition of membrane Na⁺/K⁺ ATPase activity, or oxidative protein modification such as the formation of nitrotyrosine^[4,38]. Thus, NO acts as a double-edged sword since it has neither harmful or beneficial effects, depending on its source and the experimental conditions.

The importance of e-NOS for hepatic injury after cold storage/warm reperfusion in transplanted liver grafts has been investigated. The functions of mouse liver grafts retrieved from e-NOS-deficient donors and those from wild-type donors were compared after orthotopic transplantation^[31]. e-NOS-deficient liver grafts intensified IR injury, as shown by increased ALT, necrosis and apoptosis, and elevated graft infiltration of monocytes/macrophages. In addition, both flow rate and sinusoidal diameter were diminished after transplantation of e-NOS-deficient grafts. All these alterations are detected from 4 h after LT. In another study, decreased hepatic bioavailability of NO was detected as early as 1 h after reperfusion of human liver transplants^[4]. This decline was attributed to a reduction of e-NOS protein levels after reperfusion, rather than to a change in e-NOS mRNA transcription. The concerned mechanism would be a rapid turnover/degradation of the e-NOS enzyme^[42]. The extent of the alteration of e-NOS protein expression depended on the duration of preservation, because the loss of e-NOS was exacerbated after 6 h of cold ischemia^[43]. The stimulus for the rapid decrease in e-NOS expression is not known.

LT depletes serum arginine due to a massive release of arginase I from cold-injured liver parenchymal cells^[44,45]. The depletion of arginine decreases tissue arginine availability, with subsequent down regulation of e-NOS^[46,47]. In contrast, enhancement of arginine availability through arginase blockade can protect against hepatic IR injury. The results demonstrate that inhibition of arginase with nor-NOHA can partially reverse the arginine depletion seen in IR injury and improve the histopathological damage following transplantation^[48].

MODULATION OF e-NOS-DERIVED NO PRODUCTION FOR LT

The quality of cold preservation is a major detriment of initial graft function and survival. While cold ischemia is considered necessary to slow tissue metabolism, it causes well-documented lesions in the SEC^[49]. The SEC is the main target cell of reperfusion injury, at least during the early phase^[50]. Endothelial dysfunction leads to NO deficiency, which has been implicated in many disorders.

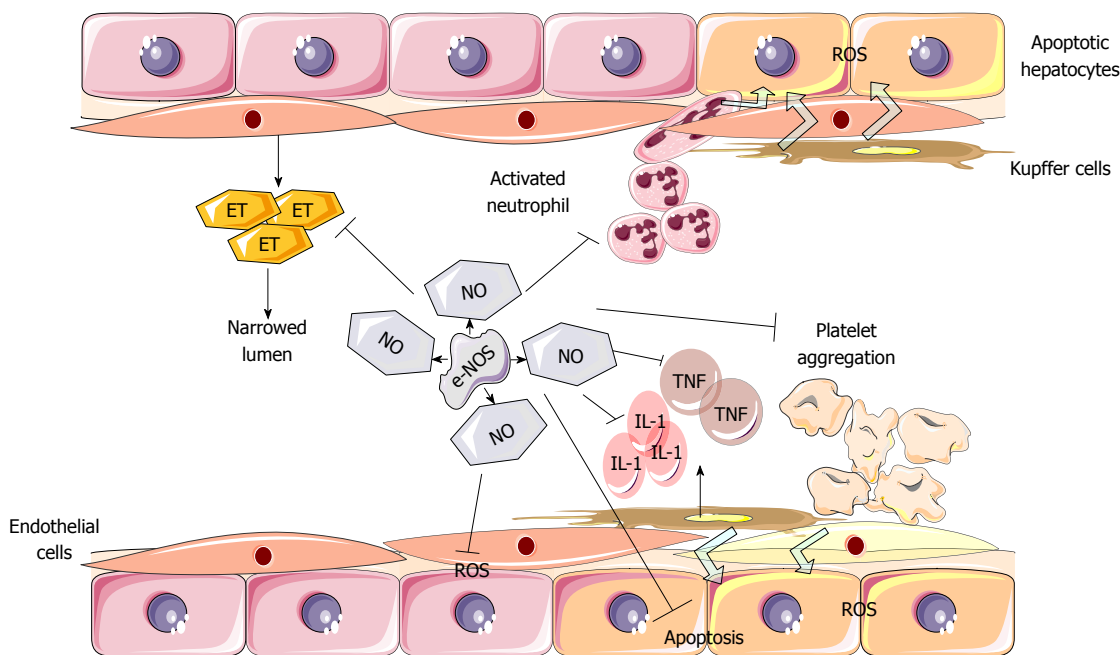


Figure 2 Protective effects of endothelial nitric oxide synthase-derived nitric oxide. The multifactorial consequences are derived from the nitric oxide (NO) generation on oxidative stress (reactive oxygen species), proinflammatory [interleukins (ILs), tumor necrosis factor (TNF)] and vasoconstrictor (endothelins) mediators. e-NOS: Endothelial nitric oxide synthase; ROS: Reactive oxygen species.

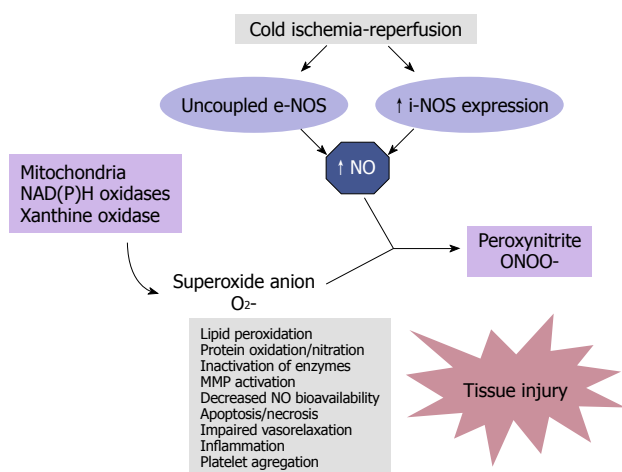


Figure 3 Tissue damage after unbalanced nitric oxide production. Cold ischemia reperfusion involves uncoupled endothelial nitric oxide synthase (e-NOS) and inducible nitric oxide synthase (i-NOS) expression. Large amounts of nitric oxide (NO) are produced under these pathological conditions. NO, in association with increased mitochondrial dysfunction and oxidative stress, reacts with superoxide anion (O_2^-), to produce peroxynitrite (ONOO⁻). Peroxynitrite, in concert with other oxidants, induces tissue damage.

The morphological changes in these cells interfere with the hepatic microcirculation during reperfusion (adhesion and activation of platelets and leukocytes, and thromboses)^[51]. So, improving quality of graft preservation is a means to promote its immediate function, to optimize the allocation of grafts and also to reduce the shortage of organs. Various strategies have been developed to promote immediate recovery of graft function and also to increase access to the marginal donor pool.

Many strategies could be developed to compensate

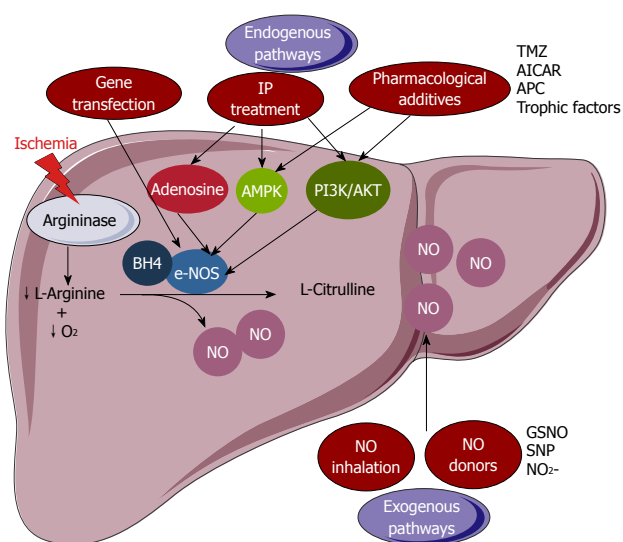


Figure 4 Modulation of the decline in endothelial nitric oxide synthase-derived nitric oxide production. endothelial nitric oxide synthase (e-NOS)-derived nitric oxide (NO) bioavailability can be compromised either by a reduced L-arginine and cofactor (tetrahydrobiopterin, BH4) availability, or by a decreased e-NOS protein activity and level. Two ways seem to be able to overcome these obstacles: the use of exogenous sources of NO (NO donors or NO inhalation) and the induction of the endogenous downstream effectors of e-NOS (pharmacological treatment or ischemic preconditioning) or transfection by an adenovirus containing e-NOS enzyme. SNP: Sodium nitroprusside; GSNO: S-nitroso-L-glutathione; AICAR: 5-amino-4-imidazole carboxamide riboside; TMZ: Trimetazidine; APC: Activated protein C; AMPK: Adenosine monophosphate protein kinase; PI3K: Phosphoinositide 3-kinase.

for the decline in NO production during LT. We can distinguish two ways to promote NO production *in vivo*: the endogenous and the exogenous routes (Figure 4). The endogenous way consists of the use of arginine^[52]

to compensate for the deficiency of this NO precursor. Other methods consist of directly influencing the activity of the e-NOS enzyme by adding to the preservation solution one of its cofactors (BH4)^[53], or one of its inducers, to increase downstream effectors of e-NOS such as Akt and AMPK^[54-56]. Transfection of donor liver by an adenovirus containing the e-NOS enzyme could also be envisaged before graft extraction^[57,58]. Ischemic preconditioning (IP) could be an endogenous source of NO^[59]. The exogenous route requires the use of an exogenous source of NO, which may be given directly by inhalation or indirectly by an NO donor such as sodium nitropruside (SNP) or S-nitroso-L-glutathione (GSNO)^[60-63].

These strategies have shown their effectiveness experimentally, but are not always applicable in human clinical contexts. NO can react with superoxide anions to form ONOO-, a highly reactive oxidant, which can induce apoptosis and cause structural and functional disorders of the graft. This explains why some authors claim that the contribution of NO during cold ischemia may be unnecessarily risky, especially if given at a high dose^[64], and the use of NO in humans is controversial at present.

NO GENERATION INDUCED BY THE ENDOGENOUS PATHWAY

Pharmacological e-NOS induction during cold preservation

The potentially protective role of endogenous NO in IR-induced injury to the liver is supported by recently published studies demonstrating enhanced hepatocellular injury in post-ischemic animals that had been rendered deficient in e-NOS^[65]. In addition, researchers have demonstrated that over-expression of liver e-NOS protects mice from IR-induced liver injury^[27,66-68].

Endogenous e-NOS activation and e-NOS-derived NO might be a promising approach to limiting organ injury. Several pro-survival pathways such as PI3K/Akt and AMPK, which are activated following hepatic injury, are involved in the regulation of e-NOS. Pharmacological up-regulation of these pro-survival kinase cascades may provide an approach to limiting cold ischemic insult. In this regard, 5-amino-4-imidazole carboxamide riboside (AICAR), carvedilol (CVD), trimetazidine (TMZ), activated protein C (APC) and insulin-like growth factor (IGF)-1 could be promising additives in preservation solutions to improve the outcome of liver grafts after cold storage and reperfusion.

Recent studies have shown that the enrichment of University of Wisconsin (UW) with AICAR, an activator of AMPK, ameliorated long-term liver preservation^[55]. The protective effect of AICAR on liver injury and function seems to be mediated by enhanced e-NOS activation and NO generation following AMPK phosphorylation, which induces vasodilatation in liver grafts^[55]. The relevance of AMPK as an e-NOS upstream regulator was evidenced by the administration of AraA, a phospho-AMPK inhibitor, previous to liver graft preservation,

demonstrating that AMPK inhibition reduces e-NOS activation and NO production^[55]. In line with these results, Ben Mosbah *et al.*^[54] demonstrated that the use of CVD, a β - and α -adrenergic blocking drug, when added to UW preservation solution, protected livers through the same mechanism^[54]. Livers preserved in this solution show decreased transaminases levels, improved vascular resistance, reduced mitochondrial damage and enhanced ATP levels after reperfusion.

However, the AMPK pathway is not the only e-NOS modulator. Other authors have attempted to improve the histidine-tryptophan-ketoglutarate (HTK) preservation solution by supplementation with an anticoagulant and anti-inflammatory agent, such as APC^[30]. They found that the modified HTK preservation solution decreased portal pressure and improved hepatic microcirculation through increased NO hepatic levels *via* up-regulated e-NOS. In addition, the solution attenuated TNF- α expression and markedly reduced the activation of caspase-3 and caspase-8^[30]. Although the exact mechanism by which APC activated e-NOS remains unclear, other *in vitro* reports postulated that APC activated e-NOS *via* phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase-dependent phosphorylation, followed by activation of PKB^[69].

Recently, Institut Georges Lopez-1 (IGL-1) solution has been proposed as an effective alternative to UW liquid in clinical kidney transplantation, and in experimental orthotopic LT models^[70,71]. In addition, we recently demonstrated that IGL-1 is more suitable than UW solution for fatty liver preservation and that the benefits from IGL-1 were linked to an increment of NO synthesis through e-NOS activation which, in turn, reduced oxidative stress and liver injury^[72].

TMZ, which has been used as an anti-ischemic drug in the heart for over 35 years, reduced liver injury and improved liver regeneration and survival rate in an experimental model of partial hepatectomy under hepatic blood inflow occlusion^[56]. Studies examining the underlying protective mechanisms of TMZ as an additive to UW solution for liver preservation suggest that AMPK up-regulation is the mechanism by which TMZ activates e-NOS and exerts its cytoprotective effect^[55]. Another study demonstrated that TMZ attenuated myocardial IR injury *via* PI-3K/AKT kinase pathway activation^[73]. We recently found that the addition of TMZ to IGL-1 solution has a synergistic effect on e-NOS-derived NO generation that favours HIF-1 α accumulation during normothermic reperfusion^[32]. Preserved HIF-1 α levels contribute to the increase in the over-expression of cytoprotective proteins such as HO-1 in fatty liver grafts.

It has been established that IGF-1 up-regulates e-NOS activity by interacting with a tyrosine kinase membrane receptor which activates the AKT signalling pathway^[74,75]. Furthermore, trophic factors, including IGF-1, have been added to UW solution in an attempt to improve the survival of pig orthotopic liver allografts after cold storage^[76]. To this end, we explored the effects of the addition of IGF-1 to IGL-1 solution on fatty liver preservation during cold IRI. We examined the mechanisms

responsible for such effects, including AKT phosphorylation and NO generation. We have demonstrated that the beneficial action of IGF-1 as an additive to IGL-1 is mediated by AKT activation and NO generation, with concomitant prevention of pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as TNF- α ^[77].

Surgical e-NOS induction by IP

IP is a technique described firstly in the heart by Murry *et al.*^[78] in 1986, which consists of the application of short and repetitive periods of I/R before a sustained one. The protective effect of IP is not specific to the myocardial muscle, since it is observed in other organs such as skeletal muscle^[79], brain^[80], intestines^[81], lungs^[82], kidneys^[83] and liver^[34]. In any case, the protection induced by IP against IR injury seems to be specific to each organ and animal species, depending on the number of IR cycles applied before the sustained IR. For example, 3-4 cycles are needed for the protection of myocardium^[78], whereas in the liver just one cycle of 10 min of ischemia and 10 min of reperfusion is sufficient for maximal protection^[59].

In the heart, IP offers an initial protection of 2-3 h after reperfusion, and a remote protection after 12-24 h that lasts for 2 to 3 d. A similar pattern was observed in the liver, although remote protection is not yet well established. Moreover, a differential IP protection was observed in the liver, also depending on the animal species.

Molecular mechanisms responsible for hepatoprotection

The molecular basis of IP is a sequence of episodes triggered by a rapid signal, which leads to an intracellular message and to the amplification of the effector mechanisms of protection^[84]. The benefits of IP are caused by the release of several inflammatory mediators such as adenosine and NO, which is followed by the activation of multiple cellular signals. NO is generated by the adenosine released (activation of adenosine A2 receptors), which in turn activates the endothelial constitutive form of the e-NOS enzyme^[34,85], a few minutes after IP. The window of liver protection induced by IP is defined by two factors: (1) the concentration of adenosine must be high enough to induce NO; and (2) the concentration of xanthine must be low enough to avoid its prejudicial effects. It is well established that a high concentration of xanthine would support significant increases in superoxide anion. This would react with NO to generate peroxynitrite^[86], which would cancel the beneficial effects of IP. Vasodilator effects of NO release improved liver oxygenation and microcirculation^[87], and also inhibited the generation of ET, powerful vasoconstrictors generated during liver reperfusion^[34].

In addition, IP preserves energy metabolism during sustained ischemia^[88,89]. This is confirmed by the maintenance of ATP levels, as well as the depletion of lactate accumulated during the ischemic period. This beneficial effect is mediated by the increase of AMPK, whose activation can be mediated by NO^[89].

The activation of the G protein-bound A2 receptor by adenosine stimulates the activity of many intracellular kinases, such as protein-kinase C (PKC) and p38 MAPK^[90,91]. In addition, recent studies implicate PKC in some of the beneficial effects of IP in liver. They show that PKC activation depends on the phosphorylation of different effector molecules, such as the tyrosine kinases^[92] and MAPK (including p38 and MAPK^[93]), and increases the tolerance of hepatocytes and endothelial cells to the ischemic insult.

Many transcription factors are involved in PKC activation, such as nuclear factor (NF)- κ B, which is responsible for the protective effects of PI^[94,95]. These transcription factors modulate the expression of particular genes, resulting in the synthesis of proteins such as heat shock proteins (HSP), which are understood to be effectors for the benefits of IP^[96]. In the liver, IP is associated with the synthesis of many inducible forms of HSP: HSP70, HSP2 and HSP73 and heme oxygenase (HO-1/HSP32). The induction of HSP depletes the binding between pro-inflammatory transcriptional factors and improves the oxidant capacity of the cells^[96-98]. Both effects could contribute to the decrease in TNF- α and to the attenuation of the inflammatory response of preconditioned livers^[99,100]. It was also suggested that IP could reduce the transcription of genes, such as *c-fos* and *c-jun*, implicated in the development of the hepatic IRI, and that NF κ B activation could induce the activation of signal transducer and transcription activator 3, implicated in hepatoprotection and cell proliferation^[89,94,96,101,102].

The beneficial role of NF κ B in IP is controversial. Whereas Funaki *et al.*^[103] demonstrate that the protective role of IP is associated with the inhibition of NF κ B activation, other authors suggest the opposite, showing that these effects are due to NF κ B activation^[94,95]. These differences could be attributed to differences in the models used. Besides these cellular signalization pathways, recent studies show that IP could induce the release of small quantities of ROS^[104] and TNF- α , contributing to the protective mechanisms.

Applications to LT

Several studies in animal models have demonstrated the usefulness of IP, but its application to clinical transplantation needs to be clarified. The first clinical application was carried out by Koneru *et al.*^[105], who used IP in deceased donor LT. They showed that deceased donor liver tolerated 5 min of hilar clamping, but IP did not decrease graft injury. More recently, Azoulay *et al.*^[106] demonstrated that the effects of 10 min of IP of the liver graft in the donor are associated with better tolerance to ischemia, as well as a worsened early liver function. These studies are consistent with those by Jassem *et al.*^[107], who demonstrated the protection of cadaver donor livers subjected to IP prior to retrieval by clamping of the hepatic pedicle for 10 min at 24 h after transplantation. This was evidenced by a significant decrease in transaminase levels, and a concomitant reduction of the non-specific inflammatory response.

Similar results were obtained by Cescon *et al.*^[108], in a prospective randomized study on cadaver donors, by the use of 10 min of IP followed by 15 min of reperfusion. These authors also demonstrated a significant reduction in AST, ALT and i-NOS expression levels after transplantation.

Taking all this into account, new research work is needed to establish the “effective protection” window in human LT and confirm the usefulness of IP in clinical transplantation, including the marginal graft donors, which at present are discarded for clinical transplantation purposes.

NO GENERATION INDUCED BY THE “EXOGENOUS PATHWAY” DURING COLD PRESERVATION

Some considerations

Many teams have sought to improve the performance of storage solutions by supplementation with cytoprotective agents. The bulk of the work on these specific modifications was performed on cellular models in rodents. Unfortunately, the benefits observed were not always confirmed in humans and these changes have often led to inconclusive results in clinical practice. Several NO donors have been tested experimentally for their protective effects on cold IR injury. However, due to the numerous possible reactions and related biological consequences, inappropriate NO levels can cause a series of disease states. On the other hand, insufficient NO production also has serious medical consequences. NO donor therapy should aim to achieve the production of the correct quantity of NO in the correct place for the correct length of time. The exogenous NO should act primarily as a local mediator to respond to specific stimuli, and then it should simply dissipate through diffusion and oxidation to NO₂- and NO₃-, without the need for complex catabolism. The chemical versatility of NO has led to the synthesis of a wide range of NO donors, each with different modes and rates of NO release. NO donors are pharmacologically active substances that spontaneously release NO (direct donors) or are metabolized to NO (donors requiring metabolism)^[109].

The selection of one among these NO donors for therapeutic uses is not easy, since it must meet certain requirements. The compound must be highly soluble in aqueous solutions and diffuse easily into cells, where it produces NO. It must be a proven NO donor, remain in a subtoxic range, have a prolonged half-life and mimic the effect of the endogenous NO. Several authors have amply evaluated the consequences of the use of NO donors in liver under warm ischemia conditions, but little work has been done on the effects on cold ischemia and graft preservation. In our opinion the use of such donors as additive to preservation solution is limited by their short half-life.

Kuroki *et al.*^[110] studied the effects of SNP on liver warm IR injury. They reported improvement of liver

microcirculation and hepatocyte injury in the early period of reperfusion. In another study supporting this finding, SNP infusion after a short period of liver ischemia also decreased liver IR injury^[111]. Interestingly, deleterious effects observed during cold storage conditions (like vacuolated hepatocytes, increase in intrahepatic resistance and diminution of bile production) were significantly removed after addition of 500 mmol/L SNP to the UW preservation solution^[60]. The authors assumed that beneficial effects of SNP were mediated by NO release^[63].

In addition, GSNO has been evaluated in the liver. GSNO may serve as an endogenous long-lived adduct or carrier of NO^[112]. GSNO possesses significant antiplatelet action at doses that cause mild hemodynamic effects^[113]. Thus, one possible mechanism by which the NO-donor can protect the graft against IR-induced damage could be based on its ability to block platelet aggregation, thus avoiding the intravascular coagulation that can occur during reperfusion. Quintana *et al.*^[60,61] evaluated the benefit of the addition in UW solution of GSNO as a NO donor. After assaying four GSNO concentrations (50, 100, 250 and 500 mmol/L), they reported an improvement in the properties of UW solution when it contained 100 mmol/L GSNO. It preserved the morphology of hepatocytes and endothelial cells and prevented the alteration of the hemodynamics and function of livers after cold preservation/reperfusion.

Some authors conclude that nitrite (NO₂-) therapy might prove beneficial in protecting organ function and integrity during periods of IR such as those encountered in organ transplantation^[114,116]. Under physiological conditions of pH and oxygen pressure, NO₂- has been shown to be a non-active metabolic end product of NO oxidation with limited intrinsic biological activity^[117]. However, under ischemic conditions, when e-NOS activity is strongly decreased as a result of its essential dependence on oxygen and the depletion on arginine, an increasing body of evidence indicates alternative NO production by NOS-independent routes. For instance, nitrite may be reduced back to NO by the nitrite reductase action of deoxygenated hemoglobin^[118], acidic disproportionation^[119], or xanthine oxidoreductase (XOR)^[120,121]. In summary, the use of NO₂- in the field of cold preservation could be considered for the following reasons: (1) it is a highly stable substance with no potentially toxic effect; (2) it selectively releases NO under conditions that subsist in stored tissue, namely ischemia, hypoxia, or low pH; (3) it increases XOR activity, which may compensate for compromised constitutive e-NOS activity in terms of NO production, during hypoxia and acidosis; and (4) sodium nitrite is an FDA-approved compound. However, the use of nitrite in preservation solutions that contain allopurinol (such as UW or IGL-1 solutions) would be ineffective, since this latter inhibits XOR.

NEW DIRECTIONS FOR THE FUTURE

Along these lines we have evidenced the relevance of e-NOS system as a useful tool for liver preservation

against cold ischemia reperfusion injury. However, new potential strategies should be established in the future to increase e-NOS activity and modulate the NO availability, as well as to define the appropriate “therapeutic window” to provide the most suitable graft protection during cold storage and further during LT. A better knowledge of understanding the molecular pathways involved may lead to more efficient protective strategies to prevent early cold reperfusion injury during transplantation based on multifactorial activation of the endogenous cytoprotective e-NOS existing in preserved liver grafts.

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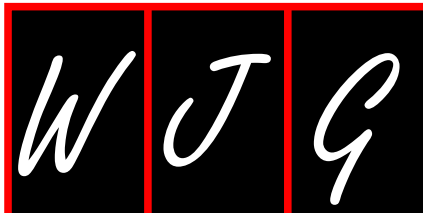
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Probiotics in hepatology

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Abstract

The paper provides a basic review of intestinal microflora and its importance in liver diseases. The intestinal microflora has many important functions, above all to maintain the microbial barrier against established as well as potential pathogens. Furthermore, it influences the motility and perfusion of the intestinal wall, stimulates the intestinal immune system and therefore also the so-called common mucosal immune system, reducing bacterial translocation and producing vitamins. Immune homeostasis at mucosal level results from a controlled response to intestinal luminal antigens. In liver cirrhosis, there are many changes in its function, mostly an increase in bacterial overgrowth and translocation. In this review, probiotics and their indications in hepatology are generally discussed. According to recent knowledge, these preparations are indicated in clinical practice only for cases of hepatic encephalopathy. Probiotics are able to decrease the permeability of

the intestinal wall, and decrease bacterial translocation and endotoxemia in animal models as well as in clinical studies, which is extremely important in the prevention of complications of liver cirrhosis and infection after liver transplantation. Probiotics could limit oxidative and inflammatory liver damage and, in some situations, improve the histological state, and thus non-alcoholic steatohepatitis could be considered as another possible indication.

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Key words: Intestinal microflora; Probiotics; Liver encephalopathy; Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis; Liver cirrhosis

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years, probiotics have become a promising alternative for the treatment of gastrointestinal and various other diseases. Despite their initially described negative influence on the course of disease, as in the case of acute pancreatitis^[1], these medicines are considered safe and their beneficial effects have also been intensively studied and described in hepatology^[2].

INTESTINAL MICROFLORA

The average length of an average human adult intestine

is approximately 10 m and its irregular surface is covered with one layer of epithelial cells that represent a surface area of approximately 200 m². The intestinal microflora above all plays a very important role in the immune reactions of the body. During fetal development, the intestine is sterile and becomes colonized with the first microorganisms after the passage of the fetus through the birth canal. After birth, the intestine is very quickly colonized with various microorganisms, the composition of which is highly variable during the first few days of life. After the first week, the intestinal microflora achieves a stable composition that depends on the method of birth, environment and type of nutrition. In breast-fed infants, there is a predominance of bifidobacteria, while in infants on milk formula, the number of bifidobacteria can be several times lower. Breast-fed infants are therefore colonized sooner with bacterial strains whose composition resembles that of the intestinal microflora of an adult^[3]. The initial colonization of the intestine also plays a very important role in further development of the individual, as the bacteria present may modulate gene expression of epithelial cells and thus create a favorable environment for themselves^[4]. The primary colonizers are permanently settled in the intestine and determine intestinal colonization with further bacterial strains later in life, which are important for the final composition of intestinal microflora in adulthood.

Major changes in the features of the intestinal ecosystem occur after weaning^[5]. During this period, anaerobic bacteria such as *Bacteroides spp.* and *Clostridium spp.* achieve a strong position and the intestinal ecosystem evolves into its stable form. The intestinal microflora contains a large amount of microbes that weigh more than 1 kg; this quantity exceeds the number of cells in the human body 10-fold. The microbial community of the intestine consists of more than 500 species, most of which have not been cultivated, and many that have not been identified so far. The intestinal microflora contains both bacteria that are fixed in the intestine (autochthonous, resident) and bacteria that only pass through the intestine (transient allochthonous)^[6]. Most of the bacteria in the intestine form an anaerobic bioreactor that helps to digest difficult polysaccharides and synthesizes micronutrients including vitamins and short-chain fatty acids. The fermentation products of these bacteria can provide up to 10% of the daily energy needed by an individual^[7]. The composition of human gastrointestinal microflora is given in Table 1.

The relationships between the host and their microflora bacteria also play an important role in postnatal development, maturation of the intestine and development of the mucosal immune system.

The intestinal microflora has many important functions, in particular to maintain the microbial barrier against established as well as potential pathogens, and furthermore, it influences the motility and perfusion of the intestinal wall, stimulates the intestinal immune system, and therefore also the so-called common mucosal immune system, reducing bacterial translocation and produc-

ing vitamins.

The digestive tract microflora is continuously influenced by numerous physical, chemical and biological factors that can affect its balance, and therefore it represents a constant potential source of digestive tract and whole-body disease. Changes in the total amount, localization, strain or species structure and in the metabolic activity of microorganisms may occur. Impairment of digestive tract microflora physiology can lead to disease or act as its cofactor (infectious, medication-associated, post-antibiotic and post-radiation diarrhea and colitis, functional diseases of the digestive tract-chronic constipation, irritable bowel syndrome, inflammatory bowel diseases, immunodeficiencies, colorectal carcinoma, some extraintestinal diseases and last, but not least, also liver diseases)^[8]. In patients with liver cirrhosis, abnormal colonization of the small intestine with colonic bacteria has been reported, while the amount of these bacteria in the small intestine of healthy individuals is small. There is a reciprocal regulatory activity between intestinal microflora and the motility of the small intestine, where the motility is regulated by the presence of intestinal bacteria. Inhibition of gastric acid production induces bacterial overgrowth in the small intestine, whereas the overgrowth of its proximal part correlates with bacterial translocation into the extraintestinal space, such as the mesenteric lymph nodes, liver and spleen.

CHANGES IN INTESTINAL MICROFLORA IN PATIENTS WITH CHRONIC LIVER DISEASES

Intestinal bacterial overgrowth was described in approximately one-third of patients with alcoholic cirrhosis, ascites or advanced liver dysfunction. The main causes are considered to be anachylosis and hypochlorhydrosis, a decrease in IgA secretion and malnutrition caused by liver dysfunction, and possibly alcoholism. Also, the decrease in intestinal motility associated with cirrhotic liver damage facilitates bacterial overgrowth in the small intestine. The impaired immune mechanisms of the mucous membrane of the small intestine facilitating bacterial overgrowth can be one explanation of the repeated and common infections in patients with liver cirrhosis. In particular, the spontaneous infection of ascites-spontaneous bacterial peritonitis (SBP)-is a frequent and severe condition^[9,10]. In contrast, suppression or eradication of intestinal facultative anaerobic gram-negative bacteria prevents their translocation and SBP, both in cirrhotic rats and in liver cirrhosis patients.

As a result of bacterial overgrowth, bacterial translocation may occur, and portal hypertension also plays an important role. It leads to vasodilation of the intestinal mucous membrane, edema of the lamina propria, fibromuscular proliferation and hypertrophy of the muscularis mucosae. Furthermore, the integrity of the intestinal mucous membrane is compromised; toxic influences of alcohol, disturbances in biliary secretion, malnutrition, decrease in growth factor secretion (insulin-like growth factor I),

Table 1 Composition of the human gastrointestinal tract microflora (from Nord and Kager, 1984)

Microorganisms	Numbers of microorganisms (CFU/mL or CFU/g)			
	Stomach	Jejunum	Ileum	Colon
Total bacterial count	0-10 ³	0-10 ⁵	10 ³ -10 ⁹	10 ¹⁰ -10 ¹²
Aerobically growing agents				
Family <i>enterobacteriaceae</i>	0-10 ²	0-10 ³	10 ² -10 ⁷	10 ⁴ -10 ¹⁰
<i>Streptococci</i>	0-10 ³	0-10 ⁴	10 ² -10 ⁶	10 ⁵ -10 ¹⁰
<i>Staphylococci</i>	0-10 ²	0-10 ³	10 ² -10 ⁵	10 ⁴ -10 ⁹
<i>Lactobacilli</i>	0-10 ³	0-10 ⁴	10 ² -10 ³	10 ⁶ -10 ¹⁰
Yeasts	0-10 ³	0-10 ²	10 ² -10 ⁴	10 ⁴ -10 ⁶
Anaerobic bacteria				
<i>Bacteroides</i>	Rare	0-10 ³	10 ³ -10 ⁷	10 ¹⁰ -10 ¹²
<i>Bifidobacteria</i>	Rare	0-10 ⁴	10 ³ -10 ⁹	10 ⁴ -10 ¹¹
<i>Peptostreptococci</i>	Rare	0-10 ³	10 ² -10 ⁶	10 ¹⁰ -10 ¹²
<i>Clostridia</i>	Rare	Rare	10 ² -10 ⁴	10 ⁶ -10 ¹¹
<i>Eubacteria</i>	Rare	Rare	Rare	10 ¹⁰ -10 ¹²

changes in bile composition and flow or increased levels of nitric oxide may be present, as well as portal hypertension. The increase in intestinal permeability is conspicuously proportionate to the degree of portal hypertension, but it is independent of severity and etiology of liver impairment^[11]. In patients with liver cirrhosis and portal hypertension, vascular resistance decreases and splanchnic flow increases. These changes lead to hypoperfusion and hypoxia of the mucous membrane further compromising the vascular wall. As a consequence of this, translocation of intestinal bacteria occurs easily^[12].

The term bacterial translocation was used for the first time in 1979^[13]. Bacterial translocation is defined as active or passive penetration of live microorganisms and their toxic products across the epithelial layer of the mucous membrane to the lamina propria mucosae. Microorganisms then migrate to the lymph nodes and/or into extraintestinal locations. Under normal conditions, this refers to the small amount of bacteria that are destroyed by the immune system of the lamina propria. Translocation is only possible when there are a high number of bacteria; the literature reports up to 10⁸ bacteria in 1 g of stool^[14].

Bacteria that escape phagocytes, as well as destruction by complement, can reach the circulation. *Enterobacteria*, *staphylococci* and *enterococci* are able to translocate, i.e. pass alive across the intestinal epithelium into the mesenteric lymph nodes, blood and other organs, while most other anaerobic microorganisms lack this ability. Bacterial translocation can be verified by positive cultivation from mesenteric lymph nodes. The main mechanisms leading to translocation include a deficit in the local immune response of the mucous membrane, a decrease in phagocytic activity of macrophages as well as neutrophils, an increase in the permeability of the intestinal barrier, and intestinal bacterial overgrowth^[15].

Factors that influence bacterial translocation can be divided into 3 groups. These are the bacterial factor, comprising the nature of the translocating agent and the status of the surrounding physiological microflora, the morphological and functional state of the intestinal wall, and not least the so-called defensive factors, i.e. local and

systemic antibacterial activities of the organism^[16,17]. All of these systems are impaired in patients with liver cirrhosis^[18].

PROBIOTICS

The history of probiotics started at the beginning of the last century with Metchnikoff^[19]; however, German authors often report a study by Döderlein as the first description of a possible probiotic 16 years before Metchnikoff proposed the use of vaginal lactate-producing bacteria for the inhibition of pathogenic bacteria growth, and attributed the higher average age of certain ethnic groups to the increased intake of fermented milk products and recommended their use.

Probiotics were originally defined as “microorganisms causing growth of other microorganisms”, and later on as “live microorganisms that cause or support the beneficial balance of autochthonous microbial population of the gastrointestinal tract (GIT)”. These microorganisms do not have to be an essential permanent component of the GIT, but should have a “beneficial influence on the general and health status of an individual”. Currently, probiotics are defined more precisely as “monocultures or mixed cultures of live microorganisms that, if administered to a person, positively influence the host by improving the properties of his/her own microflora”^[20].

UTILIZATION OF PROBIOTICS IN HEPATOLOGY

In the Cochrane Library Review, there is currently no unambiguous recommendation for administration of probiotics in any indication in hepatology. According to the World Gastroenterology Organisation Practice Guideline “Probiotics and prebiotics” are probiotics in hepatology indicated only for hepatic encephalopathy^[21], and in clinical practice, probiotics are now administered in principle only in the above-mentioned treatment of hepatic encephalopathy, with the disadvantage of a higher price compared to the standard treatment. The use of

probiotics in the treatment of non-alcoholic steatohepatitis and in prophylaxis of infections, or some complications in patients with liver cirrhosis, can be expected in the future.

Liver encephalopathy

It is believed that gut-produced ammonia plays a key role in the pathogenesis of hepatic encephalopathy because of the failure of the diseased liver to clear toxic products. Small intestinal overgrowth and delayed gastrointestinal transit time in cirrhotic patients plays an important role^[22].

Lactulose and non-absorbable antibiotics currently hold a dominant position in the treatment of liver encephalopathy. One of the effects of lactulose may be a probiotic effect on lactobacilli that reduce the activity of bacterial ureases, resulting in a decrease in hyperammonemia. Probiotics can also have a similar effect and are already included in some recommendations for the treatment of minimal liver encephalopathy^[23].

As early as the 1960s, the beneficial effect of *Lactobacillus acidophilus* was described on the course of liver encephalopathy in patients with liver cirrhosis^[24]. In a more recent study on 97 patients, the beneficial effect of a synbiotic (mixture of a probiotic and prebiotic) on minimal liver encephalopathy was observed, with a decrease in ammonium levels as well as the improvement of symptoms of encephalopathy^[25]. Minimal liver encephalopathy is described as an otherwise inexplicable impairment of cognitive functions such as prolonged psychomotor tempo, lack of attention, impairment of fine motor functions and the perception of visual sensations that can only be detected using special neurophysiological tests, and is present in 30%-70% of patients with liver cirrhosis without liver encephalopathy. In the treatment of advanced liver encephalopathy, a beneficial effect of *Enterococcus faecium* was observed, the administration of which led to an improvement in clinical status, electroencephalogram findings and a reduction of ammonium levels^[26]; the treatment of the *Enterococcus* strain SF69^[27] also had a similar effect. A mixture of probiotics^[28] may have an even better effect. A combination of *Bifidobacterium* + fructo-oligosaccharides also demonstrated a significant reduction in the Trail Making Test B, a significant increase in the Symbol Digit Modalities Test and Block Design Test and improvement in some laboratory findings^[29].

A study confirming improvement of liver encephalopathy during long-term administration of probiotic yogurts with the advantage of excellent adherence with potential for long-term adherence^[30] is also of interest.

So far, there are only very few experimental studies, however, the studies comparing the efficacy of probiotic preparation *Golden Bifid* and lactulose on an experimental rat model of minimal hepatic encephalopathy induced by thioacetamide showed excellent effects in lowering the level of ammonemia and endotoxemia, improving hepatic histopathology of rats, and decreasing the incidence of minimal hepatic encephalopathy^[31].

The use of probiotics in common clinical practice as

well as evaluation of the economic effect of the treatment will, however, require further studies. At the moment, a study titled "Probiotic *Lactobacillus* GG (LGG) in Patients with Minimal Hepatic Encephalopathy" is being conducted at Virginia Commonwealth University and we can only hope it will bring novel, positive results.

Effects on bacterial intestinal translocation, reduction in infections or prophylaxis of liver cirrhosis complications

Infectious complications are very frequently caused by bacterial strains that originate from the digestive tract. Bacterial overgrowth, as well as the associated translocation of microbes across the dysfunctional mucous membrane barrier, occurs for the above-mentioned reasons, especially in liver cirrhosis. The small gut of cirrhotic rats is contaminated by colonic microflora, which translocate to mesenteric lymph nodes, and is the most important cause of infection of ascites and spontaneous bacterial peritonitis. The identity of microbial strains in the gut, mesenteric lymph nodes and ascites was demonstrated by analysis of macrorestricted fragments DNA^[32].

In 50%-70% of patients with liver cirrhosis, bacterial overgrowth occurs in the small intestine as a result of gram-negative colon microflora contamination. As a result, an impairment of the intestinal barrier with increased bacterial translocation occurs. Apparently, it is the most important point of entry of infection in cirrhotic patients; generally, infections are very common in liver cirrhosis and can be involved in many complications associated with the disease. In the first animal studies with short term application of *Lactobacillus* GG, the treatment did not prevent translocation of colonic microflora, although it was able to colonize the cecum in 90% of cirrhotic rats^[33]. In later studies, preventive treatment with *Lactobacillus plantarum* inhibited an increase in permeability after subsequent application of *E. coli*^[34], and *Lactobacillus johnsonii* La1 with antioxidants were able to decrease endotoxemia and prevent bacterial translocation in cirrhotic rats^[35].

In clinical studies, administration of a symbiotic reduced the endotoxemia, which is an indicator of the degree of translocation^[11]. In our study, a reduction in endotoxemia was achieved through administration of *E. coli* Nissle for 42 d^[36]. The clinical significance of this has yet to be verified, but the beneficial influence on the prophylaxis of severe infectious complications, such as spontaneous bacterial peritonitis, can be expected.

In both the above-mentioned papers, an improvement in functional liver capabilities was observed, evaluated according to the Child-Pugh classification. It can be presumed that the recovery of physiological microflora in the digestive tract will reduce the liver load of toxic metabolites, above all endotoxin, which might potentially be absorbed. It stimulates secretion of cytokines. The cytokines, such as tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), interleukin-1 and interleukin-6 can influence the formation and degradation of the extracellular matrix, which is important for the development of liver fibrosis as well as during cirrhotic rearrangement^[37]. Apart from the above-

mentioned decrease in endotoxin levels, a direct decrease in cytokine levels after administration of VSL#3 probiotic has also been reported^[38]. There are some data showing, that Se-enriched *Lactobacillus* can intervene in carbon tetrachloride-induced liver injury in mice by enhancing macrophage function to maintain normal and beneficial effects, elevating antioxidant-enzyme activities, reducing lipid peroxidation reaction and inhibiting excessive release of TNF- α ^[39]. However, this extremely important finding will have to be confirmed. Another study with VSL#3, presenting a trend of a reduction in plasma endotoxin, on the other hand showed no change in the hepatic venous pressure gradient or intestinal permeability^[40].

In liver cirrhosis of alcoholic etiology, the alcohol itself may play a role, such as increased gut permeability, endotoxemia, and TNF- α production^[41]. In rats, *Lactobacillus* GG has been shown to reduce alcohol induced gut leakiness and steatohepatitis^[42]. The same group also found that the mucosa-associated microflora was altered in rats on a high alcohol diet, and this dysbiosis could be counteracted by *Lactobacillus* GG or oat supplementation^[43]. In a rat model of acute pancreatitis, synbiotic (*Lactobacillus acidophilus*, *Lactobacillus helveticus* and *Bifidobacterium* in an enriched medium) and metronidazole were able to effectively protect against endotoxin/bacterial translocation, as well as liver damage in the course of acute pancreatitis and concomitant heavy alcohol consumption. The beneficial effect of synbiotics on liver histology seems to be correlated with endotoxemia. Metronidazole did not produce such a beneficial effect; in fact, it further worsened liver damage when alcohol was added to the background of ongoing acute pancreatic inflammation^[44].

However, no large randomization study has been carried out as yet which would be relevant for clinical practice, although a recent study again confirmed the theoretic presumptions for beneficial action in this field^[45]. The "Probiotics for the Prevention of Major Complications of Cirrhosis" study, carried out in the Meir Medical Center in Israel, was finished last year but its results have not yet been published.

Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis

Fatty liver disease that develops in the absence of alcohol abuse is increasingly recognized as a major health burden. Non-alcoholic steatohepatitis (NASH) was first described by Ludwig in 1980 as a disease that histologically mimicked alcoholic hepatitis and that also may progress to cirrhosis^[46]. The diagnostic criteria for NASH continue to evolve and rely on the histologic findings of steatosis, hepatocellular injury (ballooning, Mallory bodies), and the pattern of fibrosis in patients with minimal intake of ethanol (< 20 g ethanol/d)^[47]. Recently, NASH has been studied extensively as it is relatively frequent, and may lead to the development of liver cirrhosis. So far, treatment has not been established and probiotics may play an important role, as the bacterial overgrowth and associated increase of proinflammatory cytokines are important etiopathogenic mechanisms of NASH^[48]. Clinical studies so far

have been missing in this field, but the positive effect of probiotics has already been described in some laboratory studies. In mice with non-alcoholic liver steatosis, treatment with probiotics or anti-TNF antibodies improved the histological picture of the degree of damage to the liver parenchyma, led to a decrease in the alkaline phosphatase level, improved insulin resistance, and the content of total fatty acids in the liver also dropped. In another study on a model of non-alcoholic liver steatosis, treatment with the probiotic VSL#3 or TNF- α antibodies had a positive influence on histological findings, the fatty acids in hepatocytes were reduced, the ALT level decreased and the expression of TNF- α ^[49,50] was reduced. Similar data suggesting that VSL#3 administration could limit oxidative and inflammatory liver damage were published in a more recent study^[51]. Some previous studies showed that a high fat diet caused obesity, hepatic steatosis and natural killer T-cell (NKT cell) depletion^[52]. The VSL#3 was also shown to increase hepatic NKT cell number and reduce inflammatory signaling^[53]. Another study indicated that VSL#3 modulates liver fibrosis but does not protect from inflammation and steatosis in NASH. It means, that VSL#3 effects on fibrosis may occur even in the absence of significant changes in markers of inflammation and fat in the liver^[54].

In the Cochrane Library Review, there is currently no unambiguous recommendation for administration of probiotics in NASH, even if the results from pilot studies seem promising. Randomized clinical trials are necessary to assess the clinical implication of probiotic therapy in non-alcoholic fatty liver disease and non-alcoholic steatohepatitis^[55]. Two clinical studies on the effects of probiotics on NASH are currently being conducted in Hong Kong and in Israel. Hopefully their conclusions will be encouraging.

Prophylaxis of infections after liver transplantation

In the past, several papers were published that confirmed the positive influence of probiotic administration on postoperative course after large abdominal surgery. The studies are mostly of small sample size and exhibit design flaws, but they showed statistically significant differences in infectious complications in favor of synbiotics^[56-58], and the synbiotic group did require significantly less days of antibiotic therapy^[59].

Patients in the postoperative period after a liver transplant are mainly at risk of infection by organisms, coming in most cases from the digestive tract. As already discussed in the theoretical part of our paper, the translocation of bacteria or their parts across the intestinal wall into the circulation occurs as a result of disturbances in barrier function of the intestine and disturbance of the immune system. Bacteria that translocated from the intestinal tract can be carried through the circulation into more distant systems and cause colonization or infection in extraintestinal locations. A prospective, randomized, double-blind study was published on 66 patients after liver transplantation, whereas half of the patients received a combination of 4 *Lactobacillus spp.* together with the standard enteral

nutrition. In the probiotic group, a significant reduction in postoperative bacterial infection (3% against 48%) was observed and the length of the antibiotic therapy was substantially reduced^[60]. In our study on patients after liver transplantation, we demonstrated a correlation between an increase in endotoxin and the subsequent presence of phenotypically as well as genotypically identical strains (originally cultivated from the gastrointestinal tract) in an extraintestinal location^[61]. Monitoring serum endotoxin levels can probably confirm bacterial translocation with an increased risk of infectious complications and this result further confirms the positive effect of probiotics in patients after liver transplantation. However, the conclusion is similar from the perspective of evidence-based medicine—use of prebiotics and probiotics in prevention of bacterial sepsis after liver transplantation is promising. Further randomized clinical trials are necessary.

CONCLUSION

Probiotics are becoming part of numerous therapeutic modalities in hepatology, as their effect on intestinal microflora can positively influence many liver diseases. However, verification of the efficiency of this treatment from the perspective of evidence-based medicine will be difficult, as different probiotics can be expected to have different effects in different diseases. With respect to the increasing number of studies on probiotics, the future prospects in this field are optimistic.

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Molecular biology of pancreatic cancer

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Abstract

In spite of continuous research efforts directed at early detection and treatment of pancreatic cancer, the outlook for patients affected by the disease remains

dismal. With most cases still being diagnosed at advanced stages, no improvement in survival prognosis is achieved with current diagnostic imaging approaches. In the absence of a dominant precancerous condition, several risk factors have been identified including family history, chronic pancreatitis, smoking, diabetes mellitus, as well as certain genetic disorders such as hereditary pancreatitis, cystic fibrosis, familial atypical multiple mole melanoma, and Peutz-Jeghers and Lynch syndromes. Most pancreatic carcinomas, however, remain sporadic. Current progress in experimental molecular techniques has enabled detailed understanding of the molecular processes of pancreatic cancer development. According to the latest information, malignant pancreatic transformation involves multiple oncogenes and tumor-suppressor genes that are involved in a variety of signaling pathways. The most characteristic aberrations (somatic point mutations and allelic losses) affect oncogenes and tumor-suppressor genes within RAS, AKT and Wnt signaling, and have a key role in transcription and proliferation, as well as systems that regulate the cell cycle (SMAD/DPC, CDKN2A/p16) and apoptosis (TP53). Understanding of the underlying molecular mechanisms should promote development of new methodology for early diagnosis and facilitate improvement in current approaches for pancreatic cancer treatment.

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Key words: Pancreatic cancer; Risk factors; Molecular biology; Pancreatitis; Diabetes

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INTRODUCTION

Pancreatic cancer is a fatal illness that is characterized by late diagnosis in the absence of early symptoms, which results in identification of the illness at an advanced stage. Despite all therapeutic efforts, the mortality of pancreatic cancer remains high, with the number of newly diagnosed patients nearly equaling that of deceased patients^[1].

The incidence of pancreatic cancer is constantly on the rise, especially in regions of North America, Europe and Japan. In the United States, pancreatic cancer represents the fourth most frequent cause of death from cancer. In Europe it ranks fifth. In 2009, 42 470 new cases of this disease were diagnosed, and in the same year, 35 240 patients died of this disease^[2]. One of the highest incidence and mortality rates among EU countries is observed in the Czech Republic, which, according to GLOBOCAN 2008 data, ranks second in incidence (Figure 1A) and first in mortality (Figure 1B), followed by Hungary and Finland. In the Czech Republic, pancreatic cancer is the 10th most frequent malignancy, and accounts for 2.6% of all newly diagnosed neoplasms. In 2005, the absolute number of newly diagnosed pancreatic cancer cases was 901 in men and 876 in women. In that same year, the absolute number of deceased persons from the disease reached 1580 (819 men and 761 women)^[3].

Five-year survival for pancreatic cancer is < 5%, mainly due to its late diagnosis, when it is already at an advanced stage^[4]. At the time of diagnosis, < 5% of tumors are resectable. Median survival following surgical resection ranges from 13 to 21 mo. Without surgery, median survival is a mere 2.5-8 mo^[2].

RISK FACTORS

Due to the relative rarity of pancreatic cancer, which is characterized by a complexity of underlying carcinogenesis, it is likely that a combination of multiple factors contributes to the initiation of the disease. Some factors, such as smoking or alcohol intake, can be controlled, while others such as age or family history cannot. Although most risk factors do not directly cause the disease, level of exposure often influences cancer development. As the treatment options are still limited and the survival prognosis remains poor, identification and evasion of the controllable risk factors becomes particularly important for individuals at high risk^[5]. The most prominent pancreatic cancer risk factors are summarized in Table 1.

Smoking and alcohol

Cigarette smoking represents one of the most significant and most widely studied risk factors for pancreatic cancer. The carcinogenic effect of tobacco smoke on pancreatic tissue is explained as the direct action of N-nitrosamines or their secretion into bile and their subsequent reflux into the pancreatic duct. Active smoking

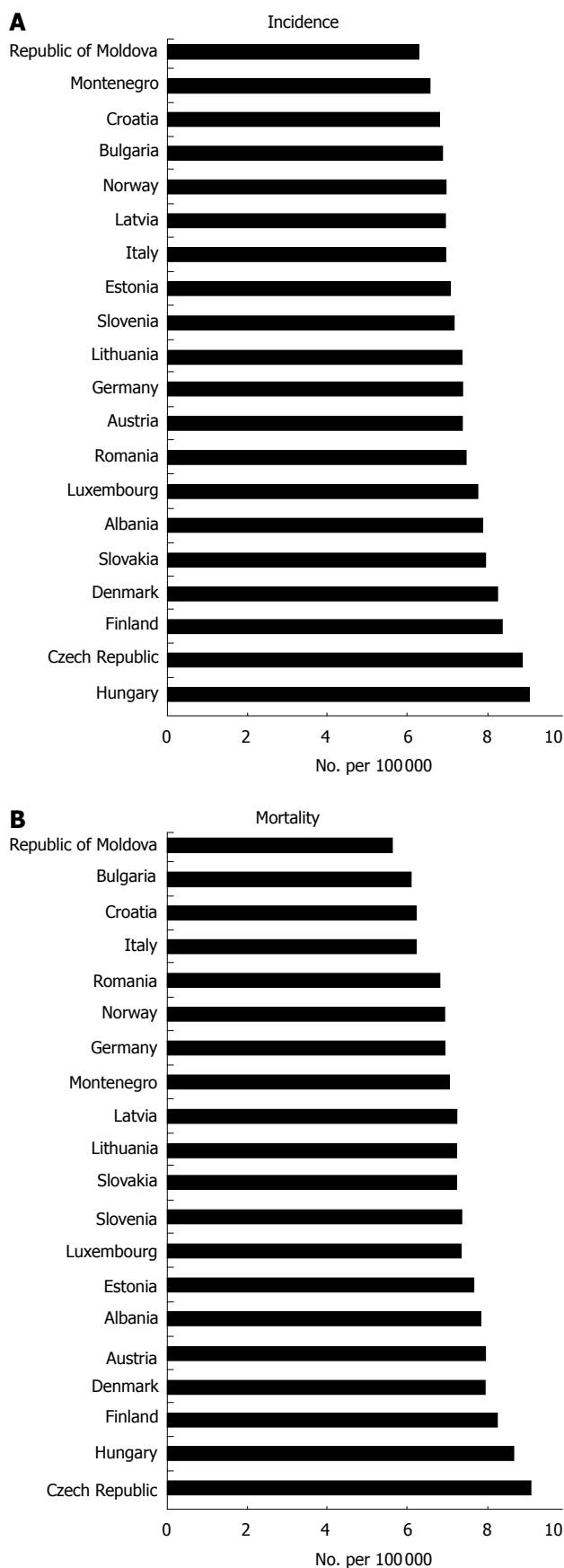


Figure 1 Standardized incidence (A) and mortality (B) rates for the 20 European countries with the highest occurrence of pancreatic cancer (Adapted from GLOBOCAN 2008).

Table 1 Pancreatic cancer risk factors

Factor	Type	Group	Maximum risk to average ratio
Smoking	Exogenous	Behavioral	3
Alcohol	Exogenous	Behavioral	Non-significant
Diet/obesity	Exogenous	Behavioral	1.72
Occupational hazard	Exogenous	Environmental	-
Radiation	Exogenous	Environmental	Inconclusive
Age	Endogenous	Biological	-
Race	Endogenous	Biological/ behavioral/ environmental	1.4
Family history	Endogenous	Genetic	32
Peutz-Jeghers syndrome	Endogenous	Genetic	132
FAMMM syndrome	Endogenous	Genetic	13.1
HNPCC	Endogenous	Genetic	7
Hereditary pancreatitis	Endogenous	Genetic	60
Chronic pancreatitis	Endogenous	Behavioral	26.3
Diabetes mellitus	Endogenous	Biological/ environmental	2.0
Hormonal	Endogenous	Biological	Inconclusive
Allergy	Endogenous	Biological	Non-significant

FAMMM: Familial atypical multiple mole melanoma; HNPCC: Hereditary non-polyposis colorectal carcinoma syndrome.

increases the relative risk of pancreatic cancer 1.5-3-fold, depending on the number of cigarettes smoked and the duration of this habit. Passive smoking has not been shown to be a risk factor^[6].

A number of epidemiological studies have focused on the relationship between alcohol consumption and development of pancreatic cancer. An analysis of 14 prospective studies has not confirmed any association between alcohol consumption and a higher risk of pancreatic cancer^[3]. Only a very weak association has been demonstrated in the case of alcohol consumption at a dose of ≥ 30 g/d, regardless of the alcohol source of beer, wine or spirits. There is also a significant association with body mass index (BMI), whereby a slight increase in cancer risk has been described in persons with an alcohol consumption of ≥ 30 g/d and a BMI of ≤ 25 kg/m². From the aforementioned, it is possible to infer that the association between alcohol consumption and development of pancreatic cancer is only implied.

This association is apparently conditional on the development of chronic pancreatitis, for which alcohol is a known inducer, and chronic pancreatitis is an independent risk factor for this cancer. It thus appears that alcohol consumption at lower doses that do not damage pancreatic tissue does not carry a higher risk for developing pancreatic cancer.

Diet and obesity

Based on a number of relevant studies, it is possible to observe an association with a diet rich in animal fats and higher consumption of meat (roasted, grilled or fried). The results of studies that focus on the effect of cholesterol, eggs, milk and dairy product consumption on increased risk of pancreatic cancer are inconsistent^[7]. In contrast, a diet rich in fiber, fruit, vegetables

and vitamins, especially vitamin C, is considered to be a protective factor^[8]. Omega-3 unsaturated fatty acids that are contained mainly in fish oil also act protectively. A similar protective effect has been shown for substances that influence DNA methylation and synthesis, such as folates. As demonstrated in an analysis of 14 prospective studies, a positive association between alcohol consumption and cancer has been discovered for alcoholics with a low daily folate intake. Similar results have also been observed in the case of methionine. No association with coffee or tea consumption has been demonstrated^[3].

Obesity is a generally recognized risk factor for pancreatic cancer in men and women^[9]. In cases in which prospective studies have evaluated BMI, men with BMI ≥ 30 kg/m² had a higher relative risk compared to women with the same BMI^[10]. One particularly interesting fact is that physical activity did not reduce the risk in persons with BMI < 25 kg/m², but it was indirectly proportional to the risk in persons with BMI ≥ 25 kg/m². Physical activity, which in its final effect leads to increased insulin resistance, decreases the degree of risk in obese patients.

Occupational hazards

The possible influence of aromatic and heterocyclic amines as well as exposure to chlorinated solvents in the carcinogenesis of pancreatic cancer remains unclear. The groups most at risk from this aspect include workers in the petrochemical and rubber industry, as well as barbers and hairdressers in whom exposure to these substances is higher compared to the general population^[11]. In contrast, the influence of heavy metals and especially cadmium, in view of its accumulation in pancreatic tissue, has demonstrated an accentuation of neoplastic processes. Another element that is suspected of a carcinogenic effect on pancreatic tissue is chromium. Nonetheless, occupational exposure leads only to an imperceptible increase in the relative risk, in view of the minimal doses involved.

Radiation

A study published in 1990 has stated that ionizing radiation does not increase the risk of pancreatic cancer^[9]. These findings are based predominantly on research in people who survived an atomic bomb explosion. The notion that the pancreas is relatively non-sensitive to ionizing radiation has been partially revised by a study of the increased incidence of pancreatic cancer among employees of nuclear research centers in the United States and other countries^[12]. Nonetheless, this report^[9] has stressed the significance of other concurrent risk factors such as smoking, diabetes, positive family history, or any other pancreatic disease.

Age and race

Age and race are the most prominent confounding factors of pancreatic cancer risk. During the first three decades, pancreatic cancer is a rarity, but from the age of 30 years onwards, its incidence increases significantly, peaking in the seventh to eighth decades, when 80% of adenocarcinomas are diagnosed. The mean age at diagnosis is 65

years. Pancreatic cancer is diagnosed before the age of 50 years only in 10% of patients^[13].

With regard to racial differences, pancreatic cancer demonstrates the highest incidence in Afro-Americans in the United States, inhabitants of Northern Europe, in Polynesians in Hawaii, and Maoris in New Zealand. In the United States, the mortality of the Afro-American population is 1.4 times higher than that of the Caucasian population. This fact may be explained by a higher proportion of smokers and patients with diabetes, and at the same time, a positive family history of pancreatic cancer^[14].

Hormonal factors and allergy

Pancreatic cancer demonstrates a different incidence in men and women. The cumulative risk in men is 0.2% and 0.1% in women. The lower incidence of pancreatic cancer in women may point to a link between hormonal factors and the development of cancer. The results of studies dealing with the relationship between female hormones and the development of cancer conducted to date have been inconclusive. As studies conducted to date confirm, this malignancy demonstrates minimal estrogen dependency. Parity and duration of hormonal exposure are negatively associated with the degree of risk of pancreatic cancer^[15,16]. In the case of postmenopausal women, this risk is not influenced by hormonal substitution. In a number of studies, pancreatic cancer is associated with a higher number of deliveries, with earlier menarche and late menopause, higher age during the first delivery, or hormonal contraception. On the other hand, there exist studies in which the aforementioned factors were associated with a decrease in the risk of pancreatic cancer. An analysis of 10 case-control studies and five cohort studies did not demonstrate any link between hormonal factors and pancreatic cancer in women^[17]. Indeed, additional factors, such as differences in life habits, may also contribute to the different cumulative risks between men and women.

Studies published to date have demonstrated a decrease in the risk of pancreatic cancer in individuals with allergies, especially respiratory allergy^[18]. Longer survival has been described in allergic patients who have undergone resection procedures compared to resected patients with no allergies. The decrease in risk is most often associated with respiratory forms of allergy such as hay fever, and allergy to pollen and grass. The mechanisms of the possible protective effect of allergy in patients with a tumor is not exactly known^[19].

CHRONIC PANCREATITIS

At present, acute and chronic pancreatitis are considered two pathogenically different disease entities; their relation to the genesis of pancreatic cancer is likewise quite different. Although acute pancreatitis is not considered a risk factor in terms of the index diagnosis, the concept of a causal association between alcoholic, hypercalcemic, trophic and hereditary forms of chronic pancreatitis and increased predisposition to developing pancreatic cancer is generally recognized. The obstructive type of chronic

pancreatitis has been questioned as a risk factor by some authors^[20].

Although no more than 5% of diagnosed cases of pancreatic cancer can be explained by recurrent attacks of chronic pancreatitis, the same genetic changes have been detected in individuals with chronic inflammation of the pancreas and pancreatic cancer. Chronic inflammation is thought to induce genetic alterations in tissue, while the ongoing healing process exposes defective cells to growth factors; the result is a pathological microenvironment in which stromal elements facilitate the neoplastic process in epithelial cells (the so-called feeder theory)^[21]. According to this theory, the effector cells of the inflammatory response include active macrophages whose products, particularly the cytokines tumor-necrosis factor (TNF)- α , interleukin (IL)-1, IL-6, IL-8, epidermal growth factor (EGF), platelet-derived growth factor (PDGF), and transforming growth factor (TGF) α and β induce cell proliferation, angiogenesis and desmoplastic reaction, that is, processes that form part of the pathogenesis of chronic pancreatitis and pancreatic cancer. IL-6 promotes the maturation of myeloid precursors into macrophages, and TGF- α inhibits processes leading to apoptosis and stimulates progressive fibrosis. Additionally, the same cytokine activates the transcription factor nuclear factor (NF)- κ B, a mediator of inhibition of programmed cell death. Its expression has been reported in cases of chronic inflammation of the pancreas and pancreatic cancer. In addition, NF- κ B upregulation promotes the production of reactive nitrogen oxide and cyclooxygenase (COX)-2 and induces IL-8 expression. There have been reports of an autocrine growth promoting effect of IL-8, which is produced at increased rates in response to hypoxia; particularly in the center of tumor foci, thus having a pro-carcinogenic and pro-metastatic effect. COX-2 responds to increased prostaglandin production in cases of inflammation and cancer, facilitates cell proliferation and angiogenesis, and is a potent inhibitor of apoptosis. Additionally, COX-2 is involved in the transformation of chemical carcinogens into their mutagenic derivatives. This particular ability of COX-2 increases the risk of pancreatic cancer in smokers. Immunohistochemical investigations have shown that COX-2 expression is bound to pancreatic islet Langerhan's cells; as a result, increased expression of the enzyme heralds islet inflammation.

One of the hypotheses of pancreatic cancer development is based on the key relations between islet of Langerhan's inflammation, insulin resistance, growth promotion, and diabetes. Additional products of activated macrophages and neutrophil granulocytes in pancreatitis and pancreatic cancer include reactive forms of oxygen and nitric oxide, whose presence is causally related to DNA structural defects^[22]. The risk for developing a malignancy in individuals with chronic pancreatitis is 16 times that of the healthy population. One study has reported in patients with chronic pancreatitis, an increased incidence of both extrapancreatic tumors (relative risk, 1.5) and pancreatic malignancy (relative risk, 18.5). When one considers relevant only conditions that develop during 4 years of chronic inflammation, then the relative

risk increased by a factor of 15.6 for smokers, whereas there was no increase in non-smokers^[23]. A prospective study of the French Cancer Registry, including 85% of cases of chronic pancreatitis of alcoholic etiology, has reported a relative risk of 19.0^[24]. In a Czech study of 213 patients, 11 of whom had cancer, the prevalence of pancreatic cancer was 5.1%. The interval from establishing the diagnoses of chronic pancreatitis and pancreatic cancer was 6-13 years. The cumulative risk for malignancy in patients with chronic pancreatitis was shown to increase in a linear manner, and was 1.8 and as high as 4.0 after 10 and 20 years, respectively^[25]. The priority of current clinical research is to identify patients with sporadic chronic pancreatitis who are at increased risk of developing pancreatic cancer.

GENETIC SUSCEPTIBILITY

Family history of pancreatic cancer

Familial pancreatic cancer (FPC) is defined as two or more first-degree relatives with pancreatic cancer. As an independent nosological unit, FPC represents only 3%-10% of the total number of pancreatic cancers. Nonetheless, the relative risk in such cases is 4.6-32 times higher, depending on the number of afflicted persons within the family^[26]. Only 20% of FPC patients demonstrate a genetic abnormality. Nonetheless, individuals from families with FPC should undergo genetic testing for the presence of hereditary breast and ovarian syndrome (BRCA1, BRCA2). These mutations are most often identified in FPC. The relative risk of pancreatic cancer in carriers of the BRCA1 mutation increases to 2.26 and in the case of the BRCA2 mutation to 3.5-8^[27].

Pancreatic cancer forms a component of a whole range of hereditary diseases and syndromes.

Cystic fibrosis is an autosomal recessive disease that is caused by mutations in the *CFTR* gene, and is characterized by the production of viscous mucus, which apart from blocking the airways, also leads to obstruction of the pancreatic duct, which increases the risk of inflammation. Patients with CF are at increased risk of chronic pancreatitis and of pancreatic tumors^[28].

Familial atypical multiple mole melanoma (FAMMM) is an autosomal dominant disease that is characterized by the occurrence of > 50 atypical nevi and malignant melanoma in two or more first or second-degree relatives. Approximately 10% of melanomas have a familial incidence and the mutation of the *CDKN2A* gene is identified in ~40% of these families^[29].

Peutz-Jeghers syndrome is an autosomally dominant hereditary disease with characteristic hamartoma polyps of the gastrointestinal tract, and mucocutaneous melanin pigmentation. Almost half of these patients are carriers of a germinal *STK11/LKB1* gene mutation. Thus, afflicted individuals have a 36% risk (cumulative lifetime risk) of developing pancreatic cancer^[30].

Hereditary non-polyposis colorectal carcinoma syndrome (HNPCC) is another hereditary cancer syndrome, for which the incidence of pancreatic cancer is typical.

This syndrome is caused by mutations in mismatch repair (MMR) genes *MSH2*, *MLH1*, *MSH6* and *PMS2*. The average risk in carriers of MMR gene mutations is 5%-10%. Pancreatic cancer is approximately seven times more frequent in carriers of MMR gene mutations, and in these individuals, it is 15 times more often diagnosed before the age of 60 years^[31]. Apart from the aforementioned, pancreatic cancer can occur in association with other diseases such as Li-Fraumeni syndrome, ataxia-teleangiectasia syndrome, multiple endocrine neoplasia type I syndrome (MEN1) or Von Hippel-Lindau syndrome.

Hereditary pancreatitis

Hereditary pancreatitis is currently considered to be an independent nosological unit. This is an autosomally dominant disease with 80% penetrance. In patients with hereditary pancreatitis, trypsin becomes activated while still in the pancreas. This accounts for partial digestion of the pancreatic tissue, which causes irritation and inflammation. A strong genetic association exists with mutations found in the *PRSS1*, *SPINK1* and *CFTR* genes^[32]. Patients with this hereditary pancreatitis have a 40-60-fold higher risk of developing pancreatic cancer. If such predisposed individuals are smokers, then the development of pancreatic cancer, or rather its diagnosis, shifts to younger age categories, in which it occurs up to two decades earlier than in non-smokers. Similarly, alcohol consumption also leads to earlier diagnosis of cancer, also 20 years earlier^[2].

DIABETES MELLITUS

A mutual association between pancreatic cancer and diabetes mellitus has long been monitored. However, the issue of mutual linkage is complicated by the fact that, while long-term diabetes is considered to be an etiological factor of the cancer, newly developed diabetes is an early manifestation of the cancer^[33].

The pathogenesis of diabetes associated with cancer and the biochemical mediators involved have not been completely elucidated. Its development due to the mere destruction of pancreatic tissue by the tumor or as a consequence of chronic pancreatitis is less probable. The high prevalence of diabetes and disorders of glucose tolerance in small, early carcinomas (< 20 mm), and primary detection of diabetes nearly 2 years before the diagnosis of carcinoma, points to the influence of humoral markers rather than to local effects of the tumor. Further research is necessary to clarify the pathogenesis of carcinoma-associated diabetes, and to uncover new markers that can differentiate it from type 2 diabetes^[33]. Newly developed diabetes during a period of < 2 years prior to the diagnosis of carcinoma is a promising sign of the presence of a completely asymptomatic carcinoma. This is why screening of sporadic, early pancreatic cancer in persons with newly diagnosed diabetes is being considered. The interval between primary detection of diabetes and the diagnosis of carcinoma ranges between 5 and 29 mo^[34].

Primary detection of hyperglycemia and diabetes represent a reference point for the timely diagnosis of sporadic pancreatic carcinoma before symptoms develop. It is well known that the symptoms of pancreatic cancer occur only weeks or months before diagnosis, which usually means that an advanced, non-resectable tumor is present and expected survival is only 4-6 mo. If we monitor glycemia in patients with small, resectable carcinomas (< 20 mm), then most suffer from disorders of glucose tolerance. Studies have demonstrated in 55%-65% of patients with resectable carcinoma, a disorder of glucose tolerance or newly developed diabetes during a period of < 2 years prior to the diagnosis of carcinoma^[54,35]. Approximately half of patients with sporadic carcinoma suffer from diabetes, and in almost 50%, diabetes is diagnosed at the time of carcinoma diagnosis. It is highly probable that diabetes precedes the diagnosis of the malignancy by several months or even years. The aforementioned facts indicate the application of pancreatic cancer screening in asymptomatic individuals with newly diagnosed diabetes^[33].

Studies conducted to date have shown that the prevalence of diabetes (determined on the basis of the oral glucose test, fasting blood glucose, and meeting American Diabetes Association criteria) in patients with pancreatic cancer is 45%-65%. In the original study, diabetes was newly diagnosed concurrently with carcinoma in 40% of cases^[34]. In other studies, the percentage of newly diagnosed diabetes was as high as 74%-88%. In summary, it could be concluded that the majority of diabetes associated with pancreatic cancer represents *de novo* diabetes, that is, diagnosed during a period of 2 years preceding pancreatic cancer, and almost half of patients with early carcinoma have diabetes. Moreover, diabetes that develops in this way usually improves following pancreatic resection.

MOLECULAR MECHANISMS

Model of pancreatic neoplasia

Molecular mechanisms of solid cancer are very complex with different mechanisms taking place and affecting the tissue at different stages of the disease. Detailed molecular mechanisms of initiation, development and progression of pancreatic cancer have been thoroughly studied since the basic principles of the disease were revealed in the 1970s and 1980s^[36-40]. The classic model of pancreatic cancer development describes morphological as well as molecular transformation from precursor lesions into invasive carcinoma^[41]. The standard nomenclature and diagnostic criteria for classification of duct lesions has primarily been based on grades of pancreatic intraepithelial neoplasia (PanIN)^[42]. The grades 1A, 1B, 2 and 3 represent growing cytological atypia characterized by loss of polarity, nuclear crowding, enlarged nuclei, pseudo-stratification and hyperchromatism. Each PanIN stage is characterized by a distinct pattern of molecular processes that are characterized by genetic irregularities that affect specific genes and genetic pathways.

Proto-oncogenes and tumor suppressors

In the PanIN model, genetic alterations have a fundamen-

tal role affecting key guardians of cellular signaling, which induces instability of entire molecular systems such as cell growth, division, apoptosis and migration. Proto-oncogenes code for proteins that act as positive regulators for these systems, such as growth factors, signal transducers, transcription factors or apoptotic inhibitors. Their mutated forms, oncogenes, are often present in cancer cells. The mutation causes the protein products of oncogenes to be permanently activated, which results in uncontrolled cell proliferation. Oncogenic mutations have a dominant character; therefore, deficiency of one allele (i.e. heterozygous mutation) is sufficient for a fatal outcome. There are several key proto-oncogenes involved in pancreatic cancerogenesis, including KRAS, CTNNB1 (β -catenin), PIK3CA or AKT1. The most common oncogenic mutation types are point mutation, deletion, gene amplification, and gene rearrangement.

Tumor suppressor genes code for proteins that act against cell proliferation, such as signaling inhibitors, negative transcription factors, activators of apoptosis, or members of DNA repair systems. As a result of genetic alteration, their normal function may be reduced or eliminated completely. Mutations in tumor suppressor genes have a recessive character; hence, the cell loses their function only when both alleles are affected. In the most common case, described as a double hit model, one allele is initially mutated while the other is subsequently mutated or lost completely^[43]. A separate mechanism of tumor suppressor deactivation is by hypermethylation^[44]. In pancreatic cancer, the frequently affected tumor suppressors include TP53, APC, SMAD4 and TP16. The genes most frequently mutated in pancreatic cancer are listed in Table 2^[45,46].

Signaling pathways in pancreatic cancer c-MET/HGF signaling pathway

The c-MET/HGF (hepatocyte growth factor) signaling pathway is a key factor in early progression of pancreatic cancer. The pathway is responsible for invasive growth through activation of key oncogenes, angiogenesis and scattering (cell dissociation and metastasis). c-MET is a proto-oncogene that encodes an HGF receptor that has a primary function in embryonic development and wound healing^[47]. Although c-MET mRNA is present at very low levels in normal human exocrine pancreas, it is upregulated in a majority of pancreatic cancers^[48-50], as well as in pancreatitis-affected epithelial cells^[51]. Overexpression of c-MET is also observed in regenerating tissue affected by acute pancreatitis^[52], and it is seen as an early event in pancreatic cancerogenesis^[51]. HGF is a primary ligand of c-MET. Upon c-MET/HGF interaction, several different signaling pathways are activated, including the Ras, phosphoinositide 3-kinase (PI3K), Janus kinase (JAK)/signal transducer and activator of transcription (STAT) and β -catenin (Wnt) pathways.

Ras/Raf/MAPK pathway

The Ras/Raf/mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) pathway is one of the most studied and best described signaling pathways in cancer^[53]. The role of Ras/Raf/

Table 2 Genes most frequently mutated in pancreatic cancer^[45,46]

Gene symbols	Protein name	Mutation frequency (%)	Type	Main signaling or system
KRAS	K-ras	58	Proto-oncogene	Ras/Raf/MAPK
TP53	Tumor protein p53	37	Tumor suppressor	Apoptosis Cell cycle control
CDKN2A	Tumor protein p16 (INK4A)	29	Tumor suppressor	Cell cycle control
CTNNB1	β -catenin	24	Proto-oncogene	Wnt
SMAD4 DPC4	Smad Dpc4	22	Tumor suppressor	TNFBeta/SMAD
APC	Apc	16	Tumor suppressor	Wnt
PIK3CA	Phosphoinositide 3-kinase	5	Proto-oncogene	PTEN/PI3K/AKT

DPC: Deleted in pancreatic cancer; APC: Adenomatous polyposis coli; MAPK: Mitogen-activated protein kinase.

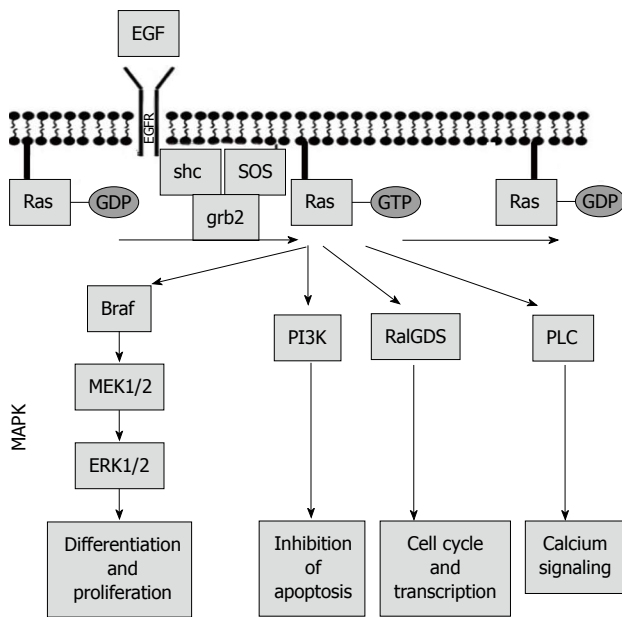


Figure 2 Ras/Raf/mitogen-activated protein kinase pathway.

MAPK signaling is critical for many cancerogenic processes, including cell growth and division, cell differentiation and migration, tissue healing and repair, and angiogenesis. The central regulator of the signal transduction from extracellular to intracellular environment is Ras protein, which is localized at the inner wall of the cellular membrane. Under normal physiological conditions, the hydrophobic Ras protein is inactive and bound to GDP. An extracellular signal coming through growth factor transmembrane receptors (such as growth factor receptors or cytokine receptors) promotes release of a guanidine exchange factor SOS, which initiates removal of GDP from Ras protein and its subsequent activation upon binding to GTP. Activated GTP-Ras complex triggers a kinase activity of Raf kinase, which ultimately results in activation of an MAPK, an important regulator of DNA transcription and mRNA translation. Mutations that affect any of the Ras/Raf/MAPK members produce an increase in tumorigenicity. Aside from Raf and MAPK, there are other downstream effectors of Ras protein, including PI3K, thus providing crosstalk between multiple pathways (Figure 2).

PTEN/PI3K/AKT pathway

PTEN/PI3K/AKT is a significant signaling pathway that is fundamentally based on regulated activation of AKT oncogene through its localization at the cell membrane^[54]. The two important protein families involved in the membrane localization of AKT are PI3K and PTEN phosphatases.

PI3K is able to phosphorylate certain membrane-bound lipids known as phosphoinositides. The PI3K-mediated phosphorylation may progress in three stages, which produces phosphatidylinositol 3-phosphate (PIP), phosphatidylinositol (3,4)-bisphosphate (PIP₂), and phosphatidylinositol (3,4,5)-trisphosphate (PIP₃). The phosphorylated forms, PIP₃ and, to a lesser extent, PIP₂, attract important protein kinases to the cell membrane. The most prominent is AKT, a family of serine/threonine protein kinases that trigger a number of key cellular processes, including glucose metabolism, cell proliferation, apoptosis, transcription, and cell migration. AKT activity is strongly dependent on its proper localization on the cell membrane. The positioning of AKT at the membrane is achieved through its strong binding to PIP₃. In pancreatic carcinogenesis, AKT1 acts as an oncogene that upholds cell survival by overcoming cell cycle arrest^[55-57], blocking apoptosis^[58-60], and promoting angiogenesis^[61]. PTEN is a phosphatase that acts in opposition to PI3K. It has tumor suppression ability by converting PIP₃ back to PIP₂ and to PIP, hence disrupting membrane localization and reducing activity of AKT^[62]. In most cancers, expression levels of PI3Ks and AKT are high, while PTEN is often deactivated by mutation, or deleted completely. Through its key role in pancreatic carcinogenesis, PI3K/AKT/PTEN signaling is an important target for anticancer therapy.

JAK/STAT pathway

The JAK/STAT signaling pathway has an important role in regulation of DNA transcription by transmission of chemical signals from cytokine receptors into the cell nucleus. The signal is passed upon phosphorylation of receptor tyrosine residues by JAK prompting activation and dimerization in a family of STAT proteins. Activated STAT dimers initiate DNA transcription inside the nucleus. It is known that inhibition of JAK/STAT signaling induces apoptosis in various human cancers, and is there-

fore, a primary focus for potential new drug candidates^[63]. A recent study has reported reduced growth of pancreatic cancer cells *in vitro* when exposed to benzyl isothiocyanate (BITC), due to its suppression of STAT3 signaling and subsequent induction of apoptosis. This is suggested as a possible explanation of the anticarcinogenic effect of cruciferous vegetables (such as broccoli, cauliflower, cabbage or horseradish) that are rich in BITC^[64].

TGF- β /SMAD signaling

TGF- β is a ligand that binds to type II cytokine receptor dimer, which then binds and activates type I cytokine receptor dimer, which triggers phosphorylation of receptor-regulated SMADs (R-SMADs), mainly SMAD2 and SMAD3. In phosphorylated form, the R-SMADs form a complex with SMAD4, which accumulates in the nucleus and interacts with other factors to stimulate transcription of genes that are important for cell cycle arrest and migration. SMAD4 is therefore a key mediator for TGF- β signals. Due to its frequent absence in proliferating pancreatic cancer tissue, it is also known as DPC or “deleted in pancreatic cancer”^[65]. Relatively high frequency of SMAD4 mutations and loss of heterozygosity at the DPC4 locus (18q21.1) strongly suggest that the protein is a primary tumor suppressor that is involved in pancreatic cancerogenesis. However, reinstating SMAD4 expression results in tumor growth suppression only *in vivo* and not *in vitro*. It has also been found that SMAD4-independent pathways may be responsible for tumorigenic effect of TGF- β signaling^[66].

Wnt signaling

Wnt signaling is crucial to formation and maintenance of endocrine pancreas^[67]. During pancreatic carcinogenesis, Wnt triggers transcription of a number of genes that have a direct impact on cell proliferation, differentiation and migration^[68]. Activation of Wnt signaling is by interaction of a family of membrane-bound receptors known as Frizzleds with Wnt ligands. Once activated, the downstream signals may proceed through separate pathways. In a canonical pathway, signal transduction is mediated by stabilization and translocation of β -catenin from the cytosol into the nucleus followed by its interaction with T-cell factor (HMG box) which activates transcription of target genes. The localization of high expression levels of β -catenin at the nucleus has been experimentally confirmed for various high grade PanIN lesions, as well as in advanced pancreatic cancer^[69]. In a non-canonical, β -catenin-independent pathway, other signal mediators are involved, which block the β -catenin-assisted transcription. The nuclear localization of β -catenin and high expression levels of WNT5a, a gene involved in non-canonical Wnt pathways, suggests involvement of both pathways in pancreatic cancer progression^[68].

CDKN2A and cell cycle control

The cell cycle control genes have profound importance in cancer and CDKN2A is one of key factors in its negative control. The CDKN2A has two promoters and alterna-

tive splicing sites that result in two alternative protein products: cyclin-dependent kinase inhibitor p16INK4a and p53-activator p14ARF. Although both proteins are active in negative control of the cell cycle, only the function of p16INK4a is frequently lost in pancreatic tumors due to point mutations, deletions or hypermethylation^[70]. p16INK4a protein (also known as p16) inhibits key elements of cell cycle progression at the G1 checkpoint. p16 inactivation is an early event in pancreatic carcinogenesis, and low levels of p16 expression are associated with larger tumors, risk of early metastases and poor survival^[71].

MOLECULAR DIAGNOSTICS

A whole range of findings regarding the molecular biological basis of malignant transformation in pancreatic cancer has been published in recent years, and certain progress has been achieved also in the diagnosis, staging and treatment of localized tumors. In the fields of prevention, early diagnosis, screening and treatment of advanced tumors, which represent the majority of newly diagnosed cases, research has failed to provide any fundamental discoveries that would significantly affect the prognosis of patients with pancreatic cancer. Better understanding of the mechanisms of molecular genetics involved in pancreatic carcinogenesis has enabled the identification of a number of hereditary syndromes that in probands represent an increased risk of cancer. An overview is shown in Table 3^[72].

Carbohydrate antigen (Ca) 19-9 retains its dominant role among tumor markers. It is the only marker to have been applied in clinical practice, where it is used to detect early recurrence in patients with an already known diagnosis and those undergoing treatment^[73]. Use of Ca 19-9 as a screening test has yielded unsatisfactory results. This marker is not specific for pancreatic cancer and may be elevated in various cholestatic syndromes, and not necessarily a tumor. Moreover, the levels of secreted Ca 19-9 are affected by positivity of the Lewis antigen a and b^[74]. Table 4 presents an overview of other biomarkers being studied as potentially useful in the diagnosis of pancreatic cancer^[75].

Currently, none of the listed biomarkers meets the criteria of utility for the detection of early carcinoma. Even the promising marker PAM4 has demonstrated a sensitivity of 54% in early stage 1a carcinoma and 75% in stage 1b carcinoma^[75]. The common denominator of the failure of all biomarkers in early detection lies in their low sensitivity; in some cases, associated with difficult or an invasive collection of biological material.

Detection of early pancreatic cancer in the general population using currently available means is impossible. Interest is now focusing on at-risk groups; especially those in whom the risk of developing this cancer is at least 10-fold higher compared to the general population. This risk may be stratified into low, intermediate and high^[76]. Table 5 summarizes this risk stratification.

Several studies published recently have attempted to detect early and resectable carcinoma in high-risk groups with the aid of imaging methods^[72,76]. Screening exami-

Table 3 Overview of hereditary syndromes predisposing to pancreatic cancer

Syndrome	Gene	Life-time risk	Relative risk
FAMMM	CDKN2A	10%-15%	20-34
HBOC	BRCA2	5%	10
HBOC	BRCA1	Not known	2
Hereditary pancreatitis	PRSS1/TRYP1	30%-50%	50
Lynch syndrome	MLH1/MSH2	Not known	Not known
Peutz-Jeghers syndrome	STK11/LKB1	36%	136
FAP	APC	Not known	4
Li-Faumeni syndrome	p53	Not known	Not known
FPC	Not known	Up to 50%	18-57

APC: Adenomatous polyposis coli; FAMMM: Familial atypical multiple mole melanoma; FAP: Familial adenomatous polyposis; FPC: Familial pancreatic cancer; HBOC: Hereditary breast and ovarian syndrome. Adapted from^[72].

Table 4 Overview of biomarkers in pancreatic cancer

Biomarker	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)
CEA	45	75
Carcinoembryonic antigen-related cell adhesion molecule-1	85	98
Ca 19-9	80	73
SPan-1	81-94	75
DUPAN-2	48-80	75-85
Macrophage inhibitory cytokine 1	90	62
Alpha4GnT	76	83
PAM4	77	95
Pancreatic juice DNA methylation	82	100
Fecal K-ras	77	81

CEA: Carcinoembryonic antigen; CA19-9: Carbohydrate antigen 19-9; DUPAN-2: Pancreatic cancer-associated antigen 2; PAM4: Peptidylglycine alpha-amidating monoxygenase 4.

Table 5 Level of risk according to cumulative risk factors

Factors	Risk level
Race/sex: Male; black; Ashkenazi Jewish descent. Exposures: obesity; smoking; diabetes mellitus; <i>Helicobacter pylori</i> infection.	Low
Family history: Cancer history in a first-degree relative; history of pancreatic cancer in one first-degree relative. Inherited conditions: Hereditary non-polyposis colorectal cancer; familial adenomatous polyposis; <i>BRCA1</i> mutation carrier	(less than 5-fold)
Family history: History of pancreatic cancer in two first-degree relatives. Inherited conditions: cystic fibrosis; <i>BRCA2</i> mutation carrier. Comorbidity: Chronic pancreatitis	Moderate (5- to 10-fold)
Inherited conditions: FAMMM kindreds with p16 germline mutation and at least one case of pancreatic cancer in a first-degree or second-degree relative; hereditary pancreatitis; Peutz-Jeghers syndrome; <i>BRCA2</i> or <i>BRCA1</i> mutation carrier with at least one case of pancreatic cancer in a first-degree or second-degree relative. Family history: Three or more first-degree; second-degree or third-degree relatives with pancreatic cancer	High (greater than 10-fold)

FAMMM: Familial atypical multiple mole melanoma.

nations usually include some type of imaging method, such as endoscopic ultrasound, magnetic resonance imaging, computer tomography, or genetic tests. Successful identification of small tumors or precursor lesions, cystic tumors and intraductal papillary mucinous neoplasia is now possible in the at-risk population to a higher degree than in the general population. In cases in which solid ductal adenocarcinoma is uncovered, these lesions are usually resectable. Nonetheless, according to the available literature, recurrence has been demonstrated in all such patients over a period of several months.

In recent years, clinical research has focused on identifying patients with chronic pancreatitis with a high risk of developing pancreatic cancer. As discussed above, the following risk factors have been identified to date: smoking^[23], duration of chronic pancreatitis^[25], status after surgery for chronic pancreatitis in symptomatic individuals (recurrent pain, jaundice, weight loss, loss of appetite)^[77], presence of a mutated form of the K-ras oncogene in a sample obtained using fine-needle aspiration biopsy or pancreatic duct brush cytology^[78], loss of suppressor gene p16 expression^[79], and polymorphism of the uridine diphosphate glucuronyltransferase gene (presence of the UGT1A7 allele causing low detoxification activity of the enzyme)^[80].

In view of the completely different pathogenesis of acute and chronic pancreatitis and thus the different

relationship to the development of pancreatic cancer, acute pancreatitis currently is not considered to be a risk factor for the development of pancreatic cancer. On the contrary, the association between alcoholic, hypercalcemic, tropical and hereditary chronic pancreatitis and the increased risk of pancreatic cancer is generally valid. The risk of developing pancreatic cancer in patients with chronic pancreatitis is up to 16-fold higher compared to the healthy population. K-ras mutations are detectable in nearly 80% of patients with carcinoma. Detection of K-ras mutations in patients with chronic pancreatitis may thus be used in combination with other methods as a screening test for the detection of early carcinoma^[81].

As described above, much attention is also being paid currently to the relationship between newly diagnosed type 2 diabetes mellitus and pancreatic cancer, whereby diabetes is considered to be an early manifestation of pancreatic cancer, preceding the usual clinical manifestations of this malignancy. Patients with newly diagnosed diabetes will probably be considered to be at higher risk than they are today and will be screened. However, patients with diabetes who are suitable for screening will need to undergo multilevel selection, and the diagnosis of diabetes itself will represent the first filter of such a process. The second level should be the presence of one of the current biomarkers, or preferably the identification of a new marker with a higher predictive value. No

such marker is currently available, therefore, predictive computer models are also being envisaged.

Recent studies have demonstrated in pancreatogenic diabetes mellitus a protective effect of metformin for decreasing the risk of developing pancreatic cancer in patients with chronic pancreatitis. In contrast, treatment with insulin or its secretagogues increases the risk of carcinoma in these patients^[82].

CONCLUSION

Uncovering the importance of basic risk factors such as chronic pancreatitis and diabetes mellitus, along with a detailed knowledge of fundamental molecular processes is expected to assist in reducing mortality of pancreatic cancer through development of new approaches for detection of early stages of the disease. This will mainly be applied to evaluation of the survival prognosis and rational selection of therapy; most importantly, with respect to options for radical surgical treatment. In addition, identification of specific genetic aberrations may serve as key molecular markers as predictors of response for targeted therapies. The response prediction should not only prolong survival, but also improve the quality of life for most advanced stages of the disease.

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Genomic imbalances in esophageal carcinoma cell lines involve Wnt pathway genes

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Abstract

AIM: To identify molecular markers shared across South African esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (ESCC) cell lines using cytogenetics, fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH) and single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) array copy number analysis.

METHODS: We used conventional cytogenetics, FISH, and multicolor FISH to characterize the chromosomal rearrangements of five ESCC cell lines established in South Africa. The whole genome copy number profile was established from 250K SNP arrays, and data was analyzed with the CNAT 4.0 and GISTIC software.

RESULTS: We detected common translocation breakpoints involving chromosomes 1p11-12 and 3p11.2, the latter correlated with the deletion, or interruption of the *EPHA3* gene. The most significant amplifica-

tions involved the following chromosomal regions and genes: 11q13.3 (*CCND1*, *FGF3*, *FGF4*, *FGF19*, *MYEOV*), 8q24.21 (*C-MYC*, *FAM84B*), 11q22.1-q22.3 (*BIRC2*, *BIRC3*), 5p15.2 (*CTNND2*), 3q11.2-q12.2 (*MINA*) and 18p11.32 (*TYMS*, *YES1*). The significant deletions included 1p31.2-p31.1 (*CTH*, *GADD45 α* , *DIRAS3*), 2q22.1 (*LRP1B*), 3p12.1-p14.2 (*FHIT*), 4q22.1-q32.1 (*CASP6*, *SMAD1*), 8p23.2-q11.1 (*BNIP3L*) and 18q21.1-q21.2 (*SMAD4*, *DCC*). The 3p11.2 translocation breakpoint was shared across four cell lines, supporting a role for genes involved at this site, in particular, the *EPHA3* gene which has previously been reported to be deleted in ESCC.

CONCLUSION: The finding that a significant number of genes that were amplified (*FGF3*, *FGF4*, *FGF19*, *CCND1* and *C-MYC*) or deleted (*SFRP2* gene) are involved in the Wnt and fibroblast growth factor signaling pathways, suggests that these pathways may be activated in these cell lines.

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Key words: Esophagus; Cancer; Single nucleotide polymorphism arrays; Fluorescent *in situ* hybridization

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INTRODUCTION

Esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (ESCC) is a major cause of cancer-related death in the world and it is char-

acterized by a peculiar epidemiology with worldwide geographic pockets of high incidence. In South Africa, the region of the Eastern Cape shows the highest incidence and ESCC represents the leading cancer affecting men and the second most common cancer in woman with a prevalence of 31.3 and 18 per 100 000 individuals, respectively^[1]. The Gauteng (Johannesburg) and the Western Cape regions are also affected but to a lesser extent^[2,3]. The tumors are diagnosed at advanced stages of the disease and patients have a poor survival rate. The etiology of this cancer is unresolved and while the most common risk factors associated with ESCC include smoking and alcohol consumption, these factors are surprisingly lacking in some parts of the world that have a high incidence such as in Iran and northern parts of China^[4]. Additional risk factors have been proposed to play a role in some regions. In particular, exposure to fumonisin, a *Fusarium* fungi toxin that grows on maize, was reported in South Africa and China^[5,6] as well as human papillomavirus (HPV) infection^[7]. Poor nutrition is associated with ESCC in most parts of the world^[4], and chronic inflammation was described in endemic parts of South Africa^[8]. The respective part played by environmental risk factors and potential genetic susceptibility remains unclear and it is possible that different combinations of factors may be at play in different parts of the world.

It is widely accepted that recurrent chromosomal breakpoints in malignancies often pinpoint genes involved in the initiation or progression of cancer^[9]. A major limitation in assessment of the chromosome complement in ESCC specimens is the difficulty in obtaining metaphases from fresh tumors, and established cell lines provide a unique resource for such investigations. The number of ESCC cell lines that have been reported to date remains limited and were all established in China^[10-12] and Japan^[13]. These cell lines have been investigated with one or several low resolution molecular cytogenetic techniques including cytogenetics, fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (FISH), multicolor FISH (M-FISH) or SKY and conventional comparative genomic hybridization (CGH). Various clonal aberrations have been identified and the most common abnormalities across studies involved over representation of chromosomes 1q, 3q, 11q and 8q as well as breakpoints in the centromeric or near centromeric regions of chromosomes 1, 3 and 8^[10-12,14].

Five cell lines have previously been established from South African ESCC patients^[15,16] but apart from cell line SNO, which was karyotyped, these cell lines were never characterized for their genetic constitution. We used conventional cytogenetics, FISH, and M-FISH to identify common chromosome structural abnormalities across these cell lines. Affymetrix 250K single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) arrays were performed to investigate DNA copy number changes and the common aberrations detected by M-FISH and conventional cytogenetics. Here we describe clonal aberrations shared by these cell lines and highlight preferential targets for chromosomal rearrangements and copy number changes. These are the

first ESCC cell lines from Africa to be genetically characterized to our knowledge.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cell lines

The five esophageal carcinoma cell lines used in this study were previously isolated from male patients with moderately differentiated ESCCs^[16]. These cell lines were previously described and are designated as WHCO1, WHCO3, WHCO5, WHCO6 and SNO cell lines^[15,16].

Cytogenetics

Cell lines were cultured at 37°C, 5% CO₂ in Dulbecco's Modified Eagles medium: HAMS F12 (3:1) (GIBCO®, Invitrogen Corporation, USA) containing 10% fetal calf serum, 100 µg/mL streptomycin (ICN, Costa Mesa, CA, USA) and 100 IU/mL of penicillin (ICN, Costa Mesa, CA, USA). When the cultures were half confluent, the cells were incubated with a final concentration of 0.44 µg/mL of Karyomax® Colcemid® (Invitrogen Corporation, USA) for 4 h. Cells were then harvested by standard cytogenetic procedure. Slides were either prepared for metaphase analysis using GTG banding by standard procedures or for FISH preparations.

M-FISH

M-FISH was performed using the SpectraVysion™ Assay (Vysis®, Abbott Molecular Inc, IL, USA) according to the manufacturer's protocol. The slides were analyzed on an Olympus BX41 fluorescent microscope with six single band pass filters for visualization of the six fluorophores. Genus™ CytoVision 3.0 software (Applied Imaging Corporation, San Jose, California, USA) was used for image acquisition and analysis. Ten metaphases were analyzed per cell line.

FISH

FISH was performed on metaphase chromosomes from all cell lines in order to confirm or refine translocation derivative breakpoints and clarify their composition. Probes specific for the short and long arms of chromosome 3, the short arm of chromosome 1 and the long arm of chromosome 22 (Qbiogene, Strasbourg, France) as well as the Vysis® Cep 3 Alpha and Cep 1 Alpha SpectrumOrange probes (Abbott Molecular Inc., IL, USA) were hybridized to further map the breakpoints. The Vysis® LSI IGH and Vysis® LSI RARA, both dual color break apart rearrangement probes (Abbott Molecular Inc., IL, USA) were used to confirm the involvement of chromosomes 14 and 15 in translocation derivatives seen in cell lines WHCO1 and WHCO3 respectively. In order to establish if the *EGFR* (epidermal growth factor receptor) gene was involved in a marker chromosome 7 the Vysis® LSI EGFR SO/CEP 7 SG probe (Abbott Molecular Inc., IL, USA) was hybridized to metaphase chromosomes.

FISH was also performed on interphase nuclei from all cell lines using the Vysis® LSI C-MYC SpectrumOrange

probe and the Vysis® LSI t(11;14) dual color probe (Abbott Molecular Inc., IL, USA). These probes target the *C-MYC* gene (Spectrum Orange) on 8q24 and the *CCND1* gene (Spectrum Orange) on chromosome 11q respectively and were used to confirm SNP array copy number results. A hundred interphase nuclei were analyzed in each cell line. All FISH experiments were performed according to the manufacturer's instructions and analyzed on an Olympus BX41 fluorescent microscope equipped with appropriate fluorescence filters. The Genus™ CytoVision 3.0 software was used for image acquisition and analysis.

DNA isolation

DNA was extracted from the cell lines and from six blood specimens obtained from healthy and population-matched volunteers using standard phenol-chloroform extraction methods. DNA was quantified on the ND-1000 Spectrophotometer (Nanodrop® Technologies, Rockland, DE) and quality assessed by gel electrophoresis.

SNP arrays and data analysis

Cell lines and control DNA were hybridized to the Affymetrix® GeneChip® Human Mapping 250 K Nsp Arrays (Santa Clara, CA). The GeneChip® mapping 500 K protocols were used. The control group used as a reference for analysis was DNA samples extracted from whole blood from black male volunteers.

Data analysis was performed using the Affymetrix®, Genotyping Console™ 2.0 and the copy number analysis tool (CNAT 4.0) software (Affymetrix®, Santa Clara, USA). Subsequently data were analyzed with third party software, Genepattern^[17]. The signal intensities from the CEL files were normalized by the PM-MM (perfect match minus mismatch) probe intensity and quantile normalization against the median intensity of the controls. The raw copy number was then estimated as a ratio against the signal intensities of the normal reference samples. The log₂ratios were smoothed using GLAD (Gain and Loss analysis of DNA)^[18].

To determine the significant common regions of amplification and deletion (i.e. driver aberrations as opposed to random passenger aberrations) across the five cell lines, the GISTIC (Genomic Identification of Significant Targets in Cancer) algorithm^[19] was applied to the smoothed data. The algorithm first scores the regions of copy number change according to their frequency and amplitude, which indicates the likelihood of these regions to represent a driver aberration (G-score). The statistical significance of each G-score is calculated by comparison of these scores against a null model of random aberrations. This significance is represented as a q-value (False discovery rate), which is the likelihood that the data was generated by chance. The most probable locations for oncogenes or tumor suppressor genes are identified by calculating the minimal common regions of aberration, which are most significantly altered i.e. high amplitude change. The regions of aberrations with high G-scores and minimal q-values (less than 0.25) are therefore more

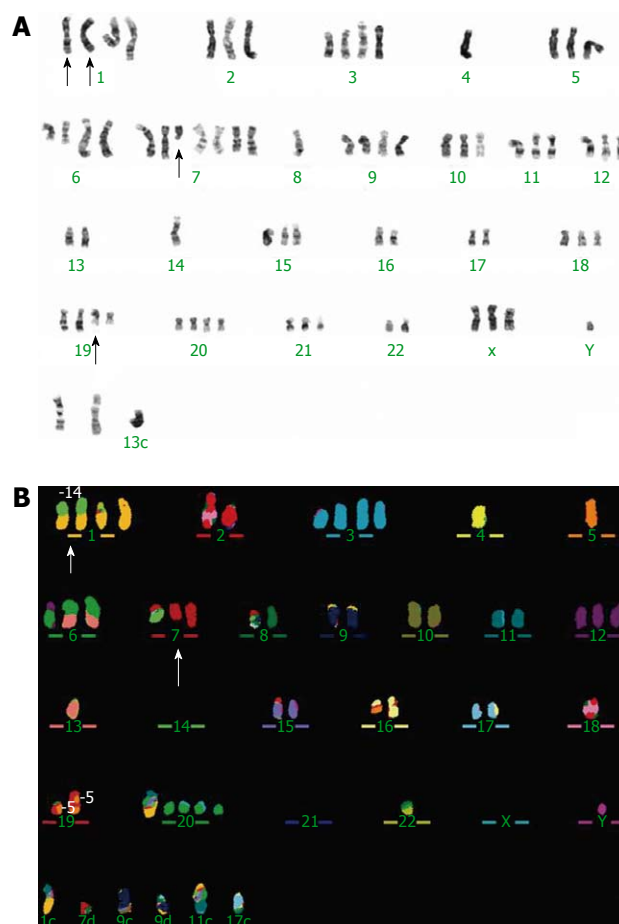


Figure 1 G-banded and multicolor fluorescence *in situ* hybridization representative karyotypes of cell line WHCO1. A: G-banded karyotype; B: Multicolor fluorescence *in situ* hybridization (M-FISH) karyotype, the arrows indicate the marker chromosomes, der(1) t(1;14)(p11;q11) and del(7)(q21).

likely to contain target genes that have a significant role in carcinogenesis. The chromosomal regions are then classified as high or low level where low level amplification is considered for a log₂ratio greater than 0.1 but smaller than 0.9 and high level amplification is considered for a log₂ratio > 0.9 (0.9 corresponds to at least 3.7 copies per diploid cell). Similarly low level deletions (hemizygous) were considered for a log₂ratio of -0.1 and homozygous deletions were considered for a log₂ratio < -1. The GISTIC algorithm has been used for copy number analysis in previous studies^[20,21].

RESULTS

Cytogenetics and M-FISH

Cytogenetic analysis revealed complex numerical and structural chromosome aberrations in all cell lines with a high variability observed between cells from the same cell line (Figures 1 and 2). The G-banded karyotype of cell line WHCO1 and a corresponding M-FISH karyotype that illustrates the degree of variation from one metaphase to another are shown in Figure 1. The M-FISH data confirmed the complexity of the karyotypes and revealed

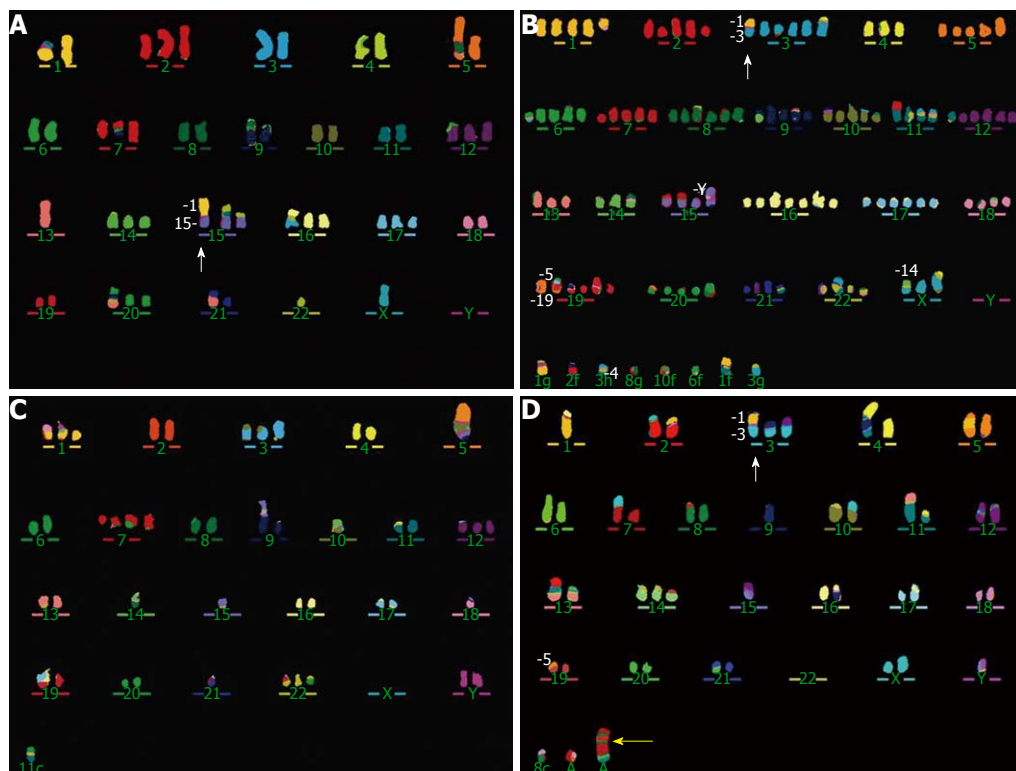


Figure 2 Multicolor fluorescence *in situ* hybridization representative karyotypes showing complex rearrangements in four cell lines. A: Cell line WHCO3, the white arrow indicates the der(15)t(1;15)(q11;p11); B: Cell line WHCO5, the white arrow points to the der(3)t(1;3)(p11-12;q11); C: Cell line WHCO6; D: Cell line SNO, the white arrow points to the der(3)t(1;3)(p11-12;p11) and the yellow arrow indicates the marker chromosome 7, mar(7), which involves the *EGFR* (epidermal growth factor receptor) locus (Figure 6).

the genetic composition of recurrent chromosome markers that could not be identified on G-banded metaphases (Figure 2); some of these markers are further discussed below. The detailed composite karyotypes obtained from twenty metaphases in each cell line are summarized in Table 1. All cell lines were near diploid except for cell line WHCO5 which was near tetraploid (Figure 2). Across the five cell lines a total of 97 translocations, 19 trisomies and 11 monosomies were detected. The breakpoints amounted to 203, with 78 of these clustering around the centromeric regions of chromosomes. The chromosomes involving the highest number of abnormalities were chromosomes 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 20 and 22. G-banded metaphases also revealed the presence of isochromosomes involving the D group acrocentric chromosomes in all the cell lines. In particular isochromosome 13q, i(13)(p10) was common to cell lines WHCO3, WHCO5 and WHCO6, isochromosome 14q, i(14)(p10) was common to cell lines WHCO1, WHCO5 and WHCO6, and isochromosome 15q, i(15)(p10) was seen in cell lines WHCO3 and WHCO5.

The combined results of cytogenetics, FISH and M-FISH revealed a common translocation derivative, der(3)t(1;3)(p11;q11) that combined chromosome 3 and chromosome 1 short arms in cell lines WHCO5 and SNO (Figures 2-4). The SNP array copy number data did not bring further information on these breakpoints, possibly due to a lack of SNP probes in this region.

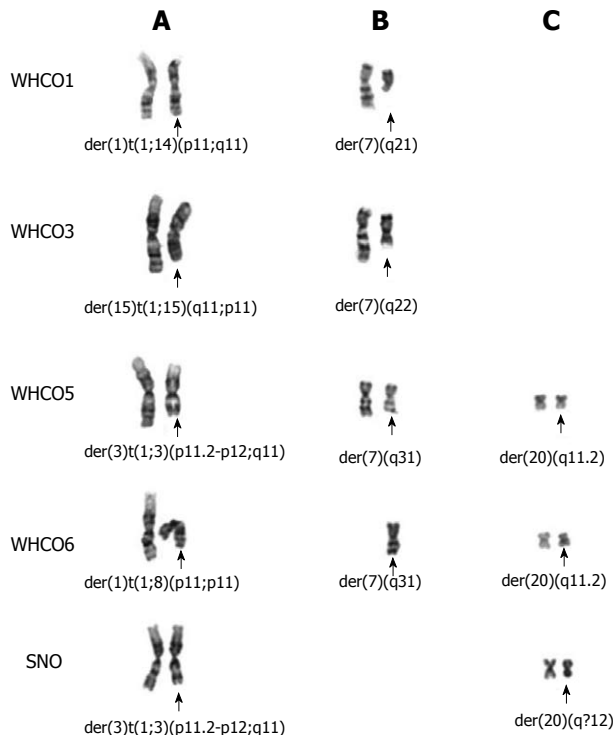


Figure 3 Partial G-banded karyotypes of the five cell lines showing shared chromosomal aberrations across cell lines. Chromosome derivatives from unbalanced translocations involving (A) chromosome 1p11-12 breakpoints in four cell lines, 1q11 in cell line WHCO3, (B) deletions of chromosome 7q in four cell lines, and (C) deletions of chromosome 20q in three cell lines.

Table 1 Composite karyotypes

Cell line	Composite combined cytogenetics and M-FISH karyotype
WHCO1	42~73, XY, +X, +X [4], +1 [10], del 1(?) [4], + der(1)t(1;14)(p11;q11) x2 [18], t(1;14;22)(?;?;q?) [4], t(1;22)(?;?) [6], + 2 [8], t(2;8)(?;?) [4], +3 [8], +del 3(p21;p13) x2 [4], der(3;22)(q10;q10) [4], -4 [8], t(5;21)(?;?) [8], + der(5)t(5;?) (q23;?) [4], + del(6)(q?21) x2 [4], t(6;12)(?;?) [16], t(6;13)(?;?) (q25;?) (q14) x2 [18], +7 [4], + del(7)(q21) [4], + der(7;14)(p10;q10) [20], der(7)t(7;18)(p21;q23) [16], der(7)t(7;19)(p22;p13) [4], der(8)t(8;?) (q?24;q?11) [4], t(8;22)(?;?) [18], +9 [10], + der(10)t(9;10)(q13;q?11.2) [4], +11 [8], t(11;17;20)(?;?;?) [4], +12 [10], t(13;22)(?;?) [4], add(14)(q?) [4], i(14)(q10) [6], der(15;19)(q10;q10) [20], der(16)t(5;16)(?;?) [8], +18 [4], der(19)t(5;19)(p?12;q11) [12], der(19) t(5;19)(q33;q13.4) [18], + der(19)t(9;19)(q?13;q?13) x2 [4], t(19;21)(?;?) [14], +20, +20 [20], + der(20)t(1;11;20)(?;?;?) [4], +1~7mar [20] [cp20]
WHCO3	46~50, X, -Y, +2 [12], der(5)t(5;8;18)(q?;?;?) [20], + del 7(q22) [4], der(7)t(7;9)(?;?) [6], t(7;9;16;18)(?;?;?) [14], t(7;15)(?;?) [4], +12 [6], der(12)t(6;12)(?;?) [16], i(13)(q10) [6], t(13;14)(?;?) [6], t(13;14;20)(?;?;?) [6], +14 [12], + der(15)t(1;15)(q11;p11) [6], + der(15)t(1;15;11)(?;?;?) [10], der(15;22)(q10;q10) [20], i(15)(q10) [4], der(16)t(3;16;22)(p?11.2;?;?) (q?10) [20], +17 [10], der(?)t(9;13;20)(?;?;?) [10], der(21)t(13;21)(?;?) [12] [cp20]
WHCO5 ¹	99~108, XY, t(X;4;10.22)(?;?;?) (q?) [14], t(1;19)(?;?) [8], t(1;18)(?;?) [6], del 2 [2], der(2)t(2;9)(q12;q13) [10], t(2;9)(?;?) (q31;q34) [8], +der(3)t(1;3)(p11-12;q11) [12], t(3;11;13;22)(?;?;?) [8], t(3;11;22)(?;?;?) [16], t(3;22)(p11;q11) [12], der(5;20)(p10;p10) [4], t(6;13)(?;?) [4], del(7)(q31) [4]; t(8;14;18)(?;?;?) [16], t(8;18)(?;?) [10], der(9)t(9;14)(?;?) [16], t(9;15)(q?;q?) [10], t(9;19)(?;?) [6], t(12;19)(?;?) [4], i(13)(q10) [6], i(14)(q10) [8], der(15)t(Y;15)(?;?) [12], der(15)t(7;15)(?;?) x2 [14], i(15)(q10) [4], der(19)del(19)(q13.?)t(5;19)(p?12;p11) [12], del(20)(q11.2) [12] [cp20]
WHCO6	44~54, Y, -X, der(1)t(1;8)(p11;q11) [14], t(3;10)(?;?) [4], t(3;10)(?;?) (q13.3;p10) [6], t(4;10)(?;?) [4], t(5;10)(?;?) [10], t(5;22)(?;?) [4], +6 [2], del(6)(q?21) [4]; t(6;11)(p12;q13) [6], der(22)t(6;22)(?;?) [6], +7 [7], del(7)(q31) [8]; +8 [8], t(9;15)(?;?) [10], t(10;14)(?;?) [6], -11 [6], t(11;22)(p?;q?) [6], +12 [10], i(13)(q10) [6]; i(14)(q10) [6], +16 [8], t(17;19)(?;?) [10], +18 [4], del(20)(q?11.2) [6]; -21 [12], t(21;22)(?;?) [6], der(22)t(6;22)(?;?) [6], [cp14]
SNO	29~43, XY, +X, del X(?) [14], der(Y;15)(q10;q10) [12], t(1;16)(?;?) [14], der(2)t(X;2)(?;?) [16], der(2)t(1;2)(?;?) [18], der(3)t(1;3)(p11-12;q11) [20], t(3;9)(?;?) [4], t(3;10)(?;?) [14], t(3;12)(?;?) [20], t(3;20)(?;?) [8], t(4;9;11)(?;?;?) [20], t(4;11)(?;?) [12], der(5)t(1;5)(?;?) [20], -6 [18], del(6)(q?23) [20], der(7)t(3;7)(?;?) (q25;p22) [18], t(7;20;11;8;2)(?;?;?;?) [18], der(8)t(2;8)(?;?) [14], t(8;18)(?;?) [8], -9 [10], t(9;18)(?;?) [4], t(10;22)(q?;q?) [12], t(11;13)(?;?) [8], t(12;15)(?;?) [8], t(12;21)(?;?) [20], t(13;11;20)(?;?;?) [14], der(14;22)(p10;q10) x2 [20], t(14;19)(?;?) [20], -16 [14], der(16) t(9;16)(q?22;q?13) [20], der(17)t(6;17)(?;?) [12], -18 [16], -19 [16], der(19)del(19)(q13.?)t(5;19)(q?12;q10) [16], +20 [10], del(20)(q?12) [16]; der(20;21)(q10;p10) [6], -21 [18], -22 [20] [cp20]

¹Only structural rearrangements are listed due to the complexity of this cell line.

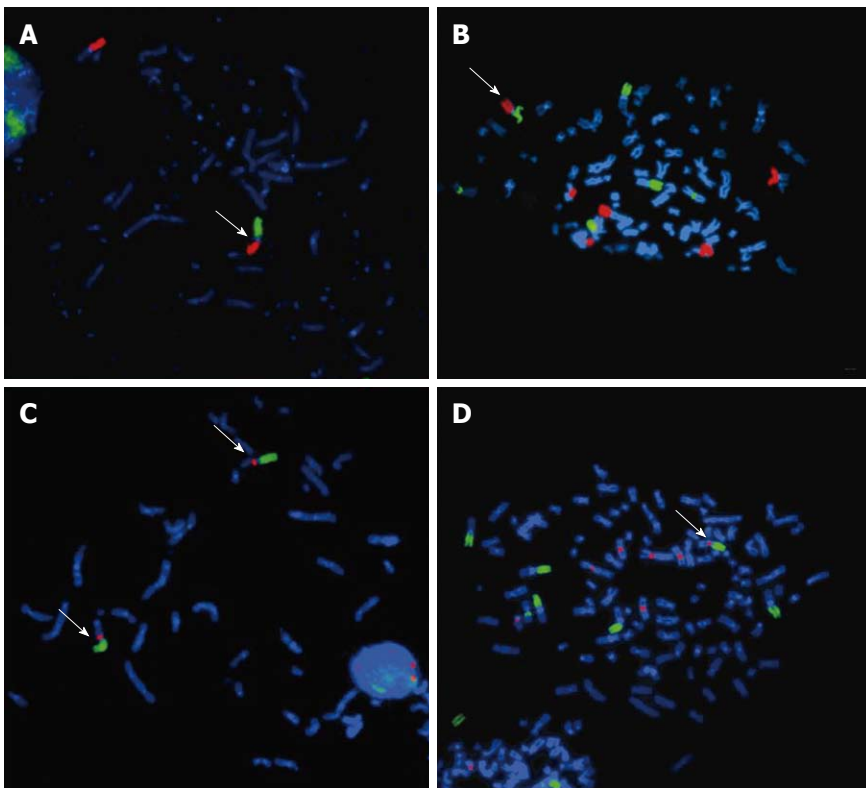


Figure 4 DAPI stained metaphasic chromosomes showing the der(3)t(1;3)(p11-12;q11) in cell lines SNO and WHCO5. A, B: Arm-specific paint for chromosomes 1p (green) and 3p (red) in cell lines SNO and WHCO5 respectively showing the derivatives der(3)t(1;3)(p11-12;q11) arrowed; C, D: Arm specific paint for chromosome 1p (green) and Cep 3 α probe (red) in cell lines SNO and WHCO5 respectively showing that the centromere of chromosome 3 is retained on the derivatives der(3)t(1;3)(p11-12;q11).

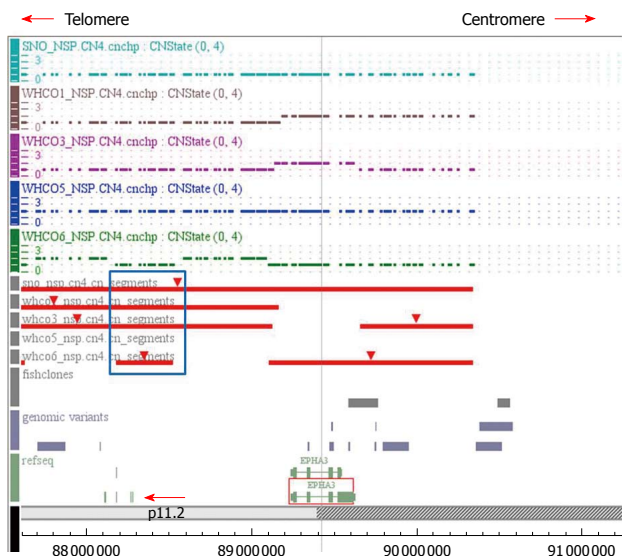


Figure 5 CNAT plot of single nucleotide polymorphism hybridization results showing the map of the region of deletion on chromosome 3p11.2-12.1 in cell lines WHCO1, WHCO3, WHCO5, WHCO6 and SNO. The red bars indicate the segment of deletion as determined by CNAT 4.0. The dotted lines indicate the copy number status for each single nucleotide polymorphism probe for each cell line. The blue block indicates the minimal common region of deletion and the red arrow indicates the two genes in this region, *c3orf38* and *CGGBP1*.

Interestingly, the 1p11 breakpoint was also involved in cell lines WHCO1 and WHCO6 in differing unbalanced translocations (Figure 3). The M-FISH and FISH results with probes for the respective partner chromosomes and centromeric Cep1, confirmed the interpretation of these derivatives as der(1)t(1;14)(p11;q11) in cell line WHCO1 and der(1)t(1;8)(p11;p11) in cell line WHCO6 (results not shown). In contrast, a translocation derivative also involving the chromosome 1 pericentromeric region in cell line WHCO3 (Figure 3) was shown not to involve 1p11 but 1q11, and was interpreted as der(15)t(1;15)(q11-12;p11) (result not shown).

Translocation derivatives involving chromosomes 3 and 22 were seen in cell lines WHCO3 and WHCO5 and were interpreted as der(16)t(3;16;22)(p11;?;q?11) and t(3;22)(p11;q11) respectively (Table 1). The array data showed corresponding hemizygous deletions at 3p11.2, in cell line WHCO3. Interestingly deletions at 3p11.2 were also observed in cell lines WHCO1, SNO and WHCO6. The minimal region of overlap was 343 kb (88 184 220-88 527 215 bp) in size and involved *c3orf38* and CGG triplet repeat binding protein (*CGGBP1*) genes. In addition the *EPHA3* gene was deleted in cell lines WHCO6 and SNO (Figure 5). The *EPHA3* gene encodes a tyrosine kinase, which is mutated in lung and breast cancers^[22-24].

Cell lines WHCO1, WHCO3, WHCO5 and WHCO6 all showed a deletion of chromosome 7 long arm with varying breakpoints, q21 to q31, on G-banded metaphases (Figure 3). However GISTIC analysis of the SNP array data identified a significant common focal deletion (q-value of 0.09) of approximately 5.16 Mb at 7q33-q34 (133 721 542-138 880 555 bp) in only three of these cell

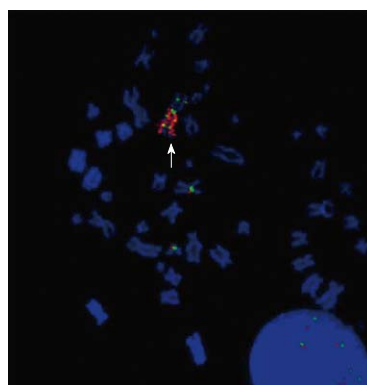


Figure 6 DAPI stained metaphase from cell line SNO showing fluorescence *in situ* hybridization results with the locus specific *EGFR* probe (red) and *Cep7 α* (green). The arrow indicates the chromosome 7 marker with a homogeneously stained region that contains the *EGFR* locus.

lines. This region contained 26 genes including the potential target gene homeodomain-interacting protein kinase-2 (*HIPK2*) the product of which activates p53 expression and is pro apoptotic^[25].

Although deletions at 20q11.2 were detected in cell lines WHCO5, WHCO6 and at 20q12 in cell line SNO on G-banded metaphases (Figure 3), copy number analysis (CNAT) revealed that there was in fact amplification of 20q sequences in all cell lines implying that complex rearrangement occurred for these sequences to be relocated elsewhere in the genome. Two minimal regions of amplification were identified, the 20q11.21-q11.22, of approximately 1.12 Mb in size (31 799 867-32 906 584 bp), which contained 14 genes and a smaller region at 20q13.12 of 149.48 kb which contained five genes. Both these regions were amplified in all cell lines, yet these amplifications were not found to be significant on GISTIC analysis.

Cell line SNO showed a large marker chromosome 7 on metaphases analyzed by M-FISH. This marker was interpreted as a possible inverted duplication of chromosome 7p sequences (Figure 2D). FISH with an *EGFR* probe, revealed a high amplification of the *EGFR* gene in 14% of the cells (Figure 6). A high level amplification at 7p13-7p11.2 (genomic location of *EGFR*) was confirmed by GISTIC (q-value 0.14) on array analysis in this cell line, while low level amplification was observed in the remaining four cell lines in agreement with the presence of 4 to 7 copies on FISH analysis.

Copy number changes

In view of the high cell to cell heterogeneity in each cell line, and in order to separate the potential driver aberrations out of the background of aberrations that may have occurred by chance, we used the software GISTIC specifically designed for this purpose. Target genes, defined as genes whose alteration confers a cell growth advantage, are likely to reside in the regions amplified or deleted to the highest degree in a majority of cells and within a common region of overlap amongst all cell lines. Fourteen common regions of amplification and 20 regions of deletion were

Table 2 Amplification peaks as detected by the GISTIC algorithm

Cytoband	Location (kb)	Approx size (Mb)	Frequency (n/5)	Mean log ₂ ratio ¹	q-value	Genes ²
1p34.2	Chr1:39027237-40780163	1.75	3	1.10	0.18	<i>MYCL1</i>
3q11.2-q12.2	Chr3:95917505-101945216	6.02	4	1.40	0.17	<i>MINA</i>
5p15.2	Chr5:10051329-11800765	1.75	2	1.36	0.09	<i>CTNND2</i>
7p11.2-p13	Chr7:45294289-57299457	12.01	1	1.24	0.13	<i>EGFR</i>
8q24.21	Chr8:127445828-129661846	2.22	5	2.10	0.0007	<i>MYC</i>
9q31.1	Chr9:100905143-102152148	1.25	1	2.57	0.15	
10q12.33-q21.3	Chr10:17811791-65388337	47.58	1	3.05	0.13	
11q13.3	Chr11:68753086-69985447	1.23	4	1.81	5.76E ⁻⁰⁵	<i>CCND1, CTTN, FGF3, FGF4, FGF19, MYEOV</i>
11q22.1-q22.3	Chr11:100815801-103042620	2.23	2	2.35	0.03	<i>BIRC2, BIRC3, YAP1</i>
18p11.32	Chr18:1-1118244	1.12	2	1.04	0.13	<i>TYMS, YES1</i>
20p11.1-p11.22	Chr20:22140447-26145930	4.01	2	1.24	0.13	<i>PYGB</i>
22q11.21	Chr22:16558724-17937900	1.38	2	1.20	0.21	<i>BID, CLDN5</i>
22q11.21-q11.22	Chr22:18577713-20667607	2.10	2	1.20	0.13	<i>CRKL, MAPK1</i>
22q12.3	Chr22:31889314-32003182	0.11	2	1.15	0.13	<i>LARGE</i>

¹The mean log₂ratio for the samples with a log₂ratio > 0.9 (equivalent to 3.7 copies per diploid cell), ²The selected genes from the peak region.

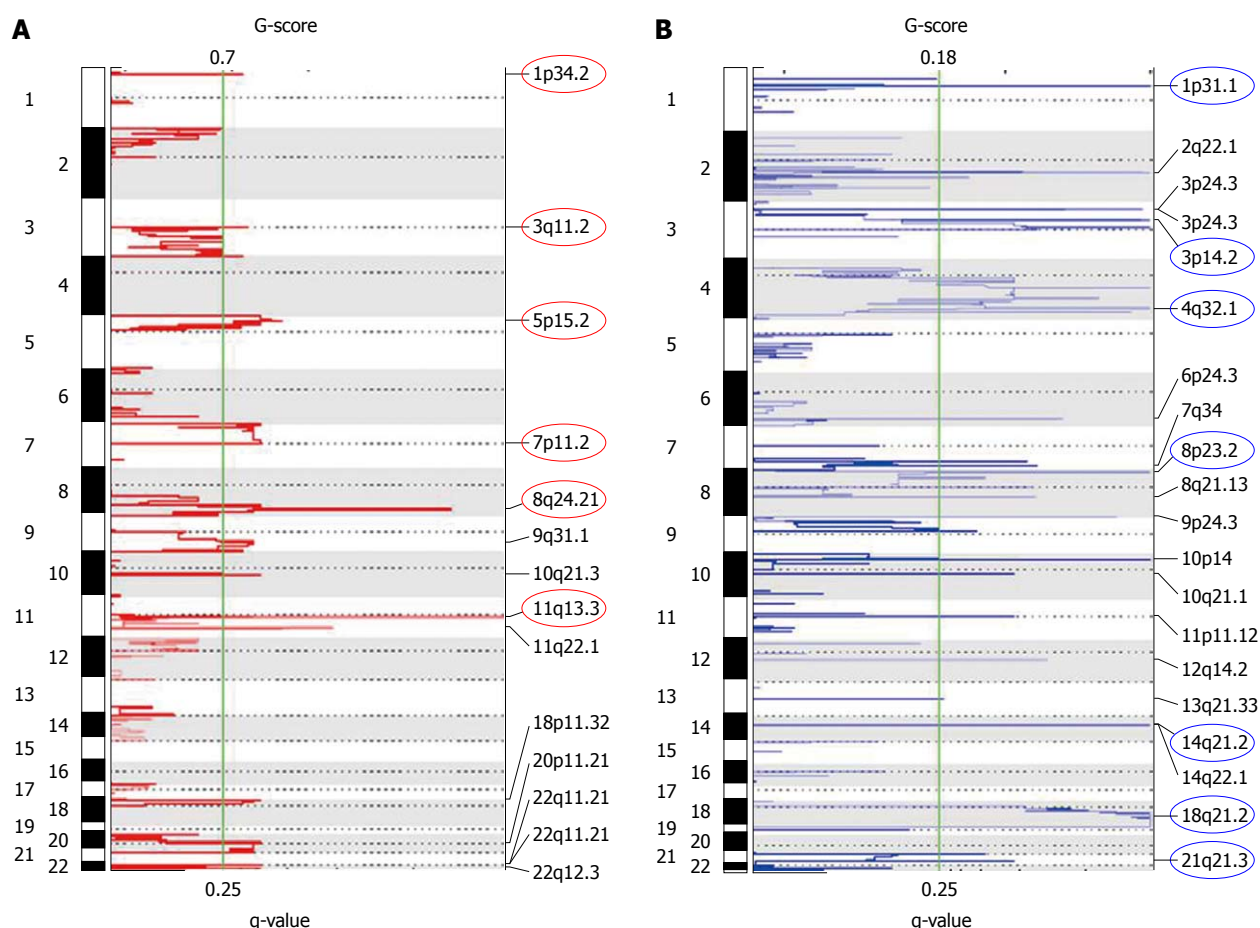


Figure 7 Plots of recurrent genomic amplifications (A) and deletions (B) detected in the esophageal squamous cell carcinoma cell lines from GISTIC analysis of single nucleotide polymorphism array data. The x-axis shows the G-score (top) and false discovery rate (q value; bottom). The green line indicates the false discovery rate cut off of 0.25. The circles indicate the peaks of the most significantly aberrant chromosomal regions.

identified (Figure 7, Tables 2 and 3). The most significant chromosomal regions of amplification were, in descending order of significance: 11q13.3 and 8q24.21, in four and five cell lines respectively, 11q22.1-q22.3 and 5p15.2 both detected in two cell lines. Chromosomal regions

of less significant amplification were 10p12.33-q21.3, 18p11.32, 20p11.1-p11.22, 22q11.21-q11.22, 22q12.3, 9q31.1, 22q11.21, 3q11.2-q12.2 and 1p34.2 (Figure 7). Similarly, chromosomal regions of deletion were seen in the following order of significance: 1p31.1-p31.2, 2q22.1,

Table 3 Deletion peaks as detected by the GISTIC algorithm

Cytoband	Location (kb)	Size (Mb)	Frequency (n/5)		Mean log2ratio ¹	q-value	Genes ²
			Hemi	Homo			
1p31.1-p31.2	Chr1:66691991-71187083	4.50	3	1	-3.03	0.02	<i>CTH</i>
2q22.1	Chr2:141590067-141951947	0.36	3	2	-1.66	0.19	<i>LRP1B</i>
3p26.3-q29	Chr3:1-199344050	199.34	2	1	-2.90	0.022	
3p12.1-p14.2	Chr7:60424050-85108679	24.70	4	1	-2.99	0.02	<i>FHIT, ADAMTS9</i>
4q22.1-q32.1	Chr4:91972774-162358674	70.40	3	2	-2.19	0.02	<i>CASP6, SMAD1</i>
6q24.3-q27	Chr6:147967444-170914576	22.95	2	1	-2.22	0.07	
7q33-q34	Chr7:133721542-138880555	5.16	2	1	-1.72	0.09	<i>HIPK2</i>
8p23.2-q11.1	Chr8:4078057-47043375	43.00	4	1	-2.47	0.02	<i>BNIP3L, INDO</i>
8p23.3-q21.13	Chr8:1-146308819	146.31	1	1	-2.27	0.09	
9p24.2-p24.3	Chr9:1151516-2459741	1.31	2	1	-2.53	0.03	
10p12.31-p14	Chr10:10309026-19155158	408.85	2	1	-2.74	0.02	
10q11.23-q22.1	Chr10:50393324-70694787	20.30	1	1	-2.35	0.12	
11p11.12-q12.2	Chr11:50256798-61426521	11.20	1	1	-1.90	0.12	
12p13.33-q24.33	Chr12:1-132078379	132.10		1	-2.80	0.08	
13q21.33-q34	Chr13:68772537-113042980	44.30	1	1	-1.70	0.24	
14q21.2	Chr14:42828345-44176016	1.35	3	1	-4.50	0.02	
14p13-q32.33	Chr14:1-105311216	105.30		1	-5.10	0.02	
18q21.1-q21.2	Chr18:46081464-51919972	5.80	5		-1.03	0.02	<i>DCC, SMAD4</i>
21p13-q21.3	Chr21:1-29932926	29.90	3			0.12	<i>BAGE</i>

¹The mean of the log2ratio of those samples with log2ratios < -1.3 (< 0.9 copies per diploid cell); ²The selected genes within the deletion peaks.

Table 4 Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization for detection of *CCND1* and *C-MYC* amplification

Cell line	FISH signals	Amplitude ¹	Log2Ratio
<i>CCND1</i>			
WHCO1	5-15	2	1.56
WHCO3	> 20	2	2.57
WHCO5	10-20	1	0.78
WHCO6	4-8	1	0.55
SNO	15-20	1	0.79
<i>C-MYC</i>			
WHCO1	4-6	1	0.12
WHCO3	15-> 20	2	1.83
WHCO5	10-> 20	2	1.83
WHCO6	10-> 20	2	2.06
SNO	4-> 20	2	1.71

¹Amplitude threshold where log2ratio < 0.1 = 0, log2ratio > 0.1 < 0.9 = 1 and log2ratio > 0.9 = 2 as determined by SNP array copy number analysis. FISH: Fluorescence *in situ* hybridization.

3p12.1-p14.2, 4q22.1-q32.1, 8q11.1-p23.2, 14q21.2, 18q21.1-q21.2 and 21p13-q21.3 detected in all or four cell lines. Other regions of less significant deletion, and only seen in one or two cell lines, included: 10p12.31-p14, 14p13-q32.33, 3p26.3-q29, 9p24.2-p24.3, 6q24.3-q27, 12p13.33-q24.33, 7q33-q34, 8p23.3-q24.3, 10q11.23-q22.1, 11p11.12-q12.2 and 13q21.33-q34 (Figure 7). Together the regions of amplification and deletion encompassed a total of 4595 genes.

Significant gains

We selectively describe below the five regions of amplification that were the most significant on GISTIC analysis (q-value < 0.25) (Figure 7). Chromosomes 11q13.3 (68753086-69985447 bp) and 8q24.21 (127445828-

129661846 bp) were the two most amplified and most significant regions with a q-value of 5.76E⁻⁰⁵ and 0.0007 respectively. The 11q13.3 region was 1.23 Mb in size and was highly amplified in cell lines WHCO3, WHCO5, WHCO6 and SNO while amplified to a lesser degree in cell line WHCO1. This region harbors seven candidate genes including the cyclin D1 (*CCND1*), the cortactin (*CTTN*), the protein tyrosine phosphatase, receptor type, polypeptide, interacting protein α 1 (*PPFLA1*), *FGF3*, *FGF4* and *FGF19* and the myeloma overexpressed (*MY-EOV*) genes, which could all play a role in ESCC oncogenesis. FISH validated these findings and confirmed the amplification of *CCND1* (Table 4, Figure 8). The common amplicon of 2.22 Mb at 8q24.21 was highly amplified in cell lines WHCO1 and WHCO3 and moderately amplified in cell lines WHCO5, WHCO6 and SNO. This amplicon involved the oncogene v-myc myelocytomatosis viral oncogene homolog (*C-MYC*) and the family with sequence similarity 84, member B (*FAM84B*) gene. Locus specific FISH confirmed the amplification of *C-MYC* in cell lines WHCO1, WHCO3, WHCO5, WHCO6 and SNO (Table 4, Figure 8).

A second focal region of high amplification on chromosome 11 was observed at 11q22.1-q22.3 (2.23 Mb in size) in cell lines WHCO5 and SNO. This region included the regulators of apoptosis *BIRC2* (*cLAP1*) and *BIRC3* (*cLAP2*), the matrix metalloproteinases (*MMP*) and the Yes associated protein (*YAP-1*) genes all potential target genes. The *BIRC2* gene was previously described as a target of amplification /increased expression in cervical cancers^[26] and the *YAP-1* gene product is a cellular adaptor protein, which can induce *BIRC2* expression. *YAP-1* was reported to be over expressed in hepatic and mammary cancers^[27]. In turn, the *MMP* genes, which include

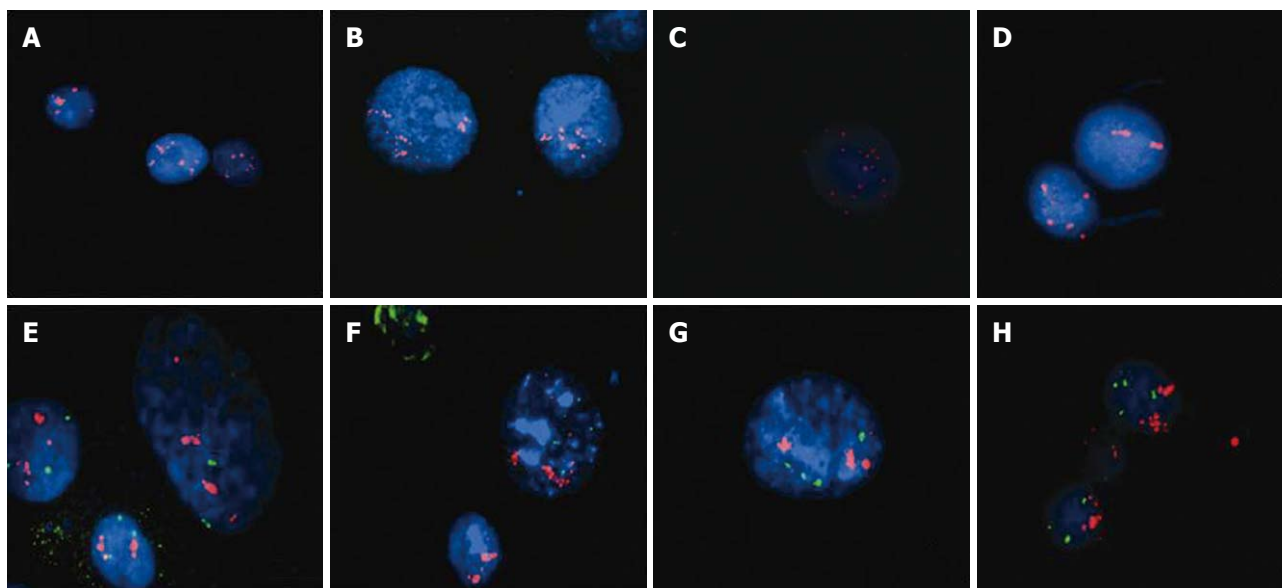


Figure 8 DAPI stained interphase nuclei hybridized with locus specific probes for C-MYC Spectrum Orange (red) (A-D) and CCND1 (red)/IGH (green) (E-H). C-MYC amplification can be seen in cell lines WHCO1 (A), WHCO3 (B), WHCO5 (C) and SNO (D). CCND1 amplification was detected in cell lines WHCO3 (E), WHCO5 (F), WHCO6 (G) and SNO (H).

MMP1, *MMP7*, and *MMP13*, have been shown to be co-expressed in early stage ESCC correlating with a poorer prognosis^[28].

A 1.75 Mb region on chromosome 5p15.2 (10 051 329-11 800 765 bp) was highly amplified in cell lines WHCO6 and WHCO5 and moderately amplified in cell lines WHCO1 and SNO. This region hosts the potential target gene, delta catenin (*CTNND2*), overexpressed in prostate cancer^[29].

Four cell lines, WHCO6, WHCO3, WHCO5 and SNO, had focal gain on chromosome 3q. The minimal common region of amplification mapped at 3q11.2-12.2, and was 6.02 Mb in size (95 917 505-101 945 216 bp) (q-value = 0.17). This region is commonly amplified in a variety of cancers^[20,30] including esophageal squamous carcinoma^[31] and it involved the potential oncogene, MYC induced nuclear antigen (*MINA*).

The 18p11.32 sub-band was highly amplified in cell lines WHCO3 and WHCO6 and moderately amplified in the remaining 3 cell lines. This region of 1.12 Mb in size (1-1 118 244 bp) has previously been described in ESCC^[32] and involves the potential oncogenes *TYMS* and *YES-1*. Both genes have been implicated in gastro intestinal cancer. The *TYMS* gene codes for a thymidylate synthase involved in DNA synthesis and targeted by the chemotherapy agent fluorouracil (5FU). *TYMS* overexpression leads to 5FU treatment resistance^[32] and affects colorectal cancer treatment^[33]. *YES-1* is a homologue of the Yamaguchi sarcoma virus v-yes amplified and overexpressed in gastric cancers and ESCC^[32].

Significant losses

The most significantly deleted chromosomal regions were 1p31.1-p31.2, 2q22.1, 3p12.1-p14.2, 4q22.1-q32.1, 8p23.2-q11.1, 14q21.2 and 18q21.1-q21.2 (in descending or-

der of significance) in all or four of the cell lines (Figure 7). Less significant regions detected in less than four cell lines are depicted in Table 3. Three small regions of deletions involved chromosomes 1p, 2q and 18q. The 4.5 Mb deletion on chromosome 1 short arm, 1p31.2-p31.1 (66 691 991-71 187 083 bp) was seen in four cell lines (homozygous deletion in cell line SNO and hemizygous in cell lines WHCO1, WHCO5, WHCO6) with a high significant q-value of 0.02. Three genes with a reported tumor suppressor activity were involved in this deletion, the cystathionine γ -lyase (*CTH*), the growth arrest and DNA damage-45 α (*GADD45 α*) and the DIRAS family, GTP-binding RAS-like 3 (*DIRAS3*) genes. The *DIRAS3* gene was shown to be down regulated in hepatocellular carcinoma and breast cancers^[34,35] and is postulated to have a tumor suppressive activity. Both the *CTH* and *GADD45* genes were shown to negatively control cell growth^[36,37].

Chromosome 2, sub-band q22.1 (141 590 067-141 951 947 bp) was lost in all cell lines (homozygous deletion in cell lines WHCO3 and WHCO5 and hemizygous in the other 3 cell lines) (q-value = 0.019). The low density lipoprotein 1B (*LRP1B*) tumor suppressor gene, deleted in lung cancer^[38,39] maps in this region.

A chromosome 18q sub-band, q21.1-q21.2 (46 081 464-51 919 972 bp) (5.8 Mb) was hemizygously deleted in all five cell lines, involving both the *SMAD4* and deleted in colorectal carcinoma (*DCC*) genes.

Three large regions of deletion involved chromosomes 3p, 4q and 8p. First, the 24.7 Mb region of deletion at 3p12.1-p14.2 (60 424 050-85 108 679 bp) was significant (q-value of 0.02) in all cell lines (homozygous deletion in cell line SNO). This region houses the FRA3B associated gene, Fragile Histidine triad (*FHIT*), whose deletions were previously detected by MLPA analysis in these cell lines^[40]. The potential tumor suppressor *ADAMTS9* gene, a me-

talloproteinase family member involved in inhibition of angiogenesis^[41] was also involved in this deletion.

Second, the 4q22.1-q32.1 (91 972 774-162 358 674 bp) (75 Mb) region was homozygously deleted in cell lines WHCO3 and WHCO5 and hemizygosly deleted in the three other cell lines with a q-value of 0.02. This region encompasses many genes but of interest are the Bone morphogenetic protein receptor 1B (*BMPR1B*), the caspase 6 (*CASP6*), the secreted frizzled-related protein 2 (*SFRP2*) and the SMAD protein 1 (*SMAD1*) genes, all potential tumor suppressor genes.

Lastly, a chromosome 8p23.2-q11.1 (4078057-47043375 bp) (43 Mb) deletion was seen in all cell lines (homozygous in cell line WHCO3 and hemizygous in the other 4 cell lines) (q value of 0.02), including five potential target genes, the BCL2/adenovirus E1B 19kDa interacting protein 3-like (*BNIP3L*), the leucine zipper tumor suppressor 1 (*LZTS1*) and the three tumor necrosis factor related superfamily genes *TNFRSF10A*, *TNFRSF10B* and *TNFRSF10C*.

DISCUSSION

We have characterized the karyotype and genomic constitution of five ESCC cell lines established in SA using a combination of traditional cytogenetics, M-FISH, FISH and SNP arrays. The number of ESCC cell lines genetically described worldwide is limited. Only eight ESCC cell lines have been investigated previously with traditional cytogenetics to our knowledge^[10,12,42] and 10 with M-FISH^[11,43,44], these are the only two techniques that can detect recurrent translocation breakpoints. In this study the five cell lines had complex karyotypes and were hyperploid with WHCO5 being near tetraploid. There was a high level of intra cell-line heterogeneity. The chromosomes most frequently involved in translocations were chromosomes 1, 3, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 20 and 22. These features were comparable to ESCC cell lines previously characterized^[10-12,42,43] and across all studies that involved karyotyping, including the karyotyping of fresh ESCC tumor samples^[14], chromosomes 1, 3 and 8 were the most commonly affected by translocation breakpoints^[10-12,43].

Forty percent of translocation breakpoints occurred in near centromeric regions (Table 1). These were represented by unbalanced whole arm chromosome translocations, frequently involving chromosomes 1 and 3, and by isochromosomes for the D group acrocentric chromosomes 13, 14 and 15. Indeed, frequent centromeric breakpoints have been described in squamous carcinoma including ESCC^[10,12] with up to 60% of all breakpoints being in centromeric regions^[43] supporting the idea that centromeric disruption is a frequent event in epithelial cancers. It has been suggested that environmental factors may preferentially interact with centromeric sequences^[45], and clastogenic compounds, such as mitomycin C, induce breaks in centromeric of chromosomes 1, 9 and 16^[46]. Smoking is a major risk factor associated with ESCC and

nicotine is known to induce single strand DNA breaks^[47]. Although active smokers exhibit an increased number of breaks at fragile sites^[48], it is not known if centromeric regions are also targeted.

Two chromosomal breakpoints were shared across cell lines. First, chromosome 1p11 was involved in a translocation in four cell lines, translocation t(1;3)(p11.2-12; q11) in cell lines SNO and WHCO5 and translocations with differing partners in cell lines WHCO1 and WHCO6. Second, chromosome 3p11-12 was involved in translocations in two cell lines and deletions in, or near the *EPHA3* locus was seen in four cell lines.

This gene codes for a receptor tyrosine kinase, with a tumor suppressor activity^[49]. It was found to be mutated in lung and breast cancers^[22-24] and interestingly, found to be deleted in 18.2% of ESCC patients in a previous study^[31].

Breakpoints in, or near the centromeric regions of chromosomes 1 and 3 have previously been reported in several ESCC cell lines^[10-12], as well as in fresh ESCC tumor samples that were karyotyped^[14], and in ESCC cell lines obtained by *in vitro* transformation with HPV^[50]. This strongly points to 1p11 and 3p11 translocation hotspots in ESCC that may affect genes and/or regulatory sequences not identified by SNP array. Deletions affecting or near the *EPHA3* gene may point to a role for this gene which was previously found to be deleted in 18.2% of ESCC patients^[31].

We knew from previous studies that these ESCC cell lines, all overexpress the *EGFR* gene^[16]. *EGFR* DNA amplification observed in cell line SNO is likely to contribute to *EGFR* overexpression whilst other factors are likely to be involved in the other four cell lines where low levels of *EGFR* amplification were observed.

In view of the high clonal heterogeneity observed in each cell line, we used the GISTIC software in addition to CNAT to analyze SNP array data and evidence the significant targets of amplification and deletions. The most stable genetic rearrangements are thought to reflect a proliferative cell growth advantage. In this context, the GISTIC algorithm allowed us to prioritize amplicons and regions of deletions in term of their likelihood to host driver genes. The five most interesting significant regions of amplification included chromosomal regions: 11q13.3, 8q24.21, 11q22.1-q22.3, 5p15.2 and 3q11.2-q12.2 in decreasing order of significance.

The 8q24.21, 11q13.3 and 3q11.2-q12.2 regions have all previously been reported in a variety of carcinomas^[51-53] and they often co-exist with one another. Genomic amplification at 8q24 occurs in a large variety of cancers^[51,53-56], and most amplicons described in the literature involve both the *C-MYC* and *FAM84B* genes, as was observed in this study in four ESCC cell lines. In previous reports the target of amplification has been attributed to either both genes^[54], or to one or the other^[55,56] based on their respective increased transcription.

The 11q13.3 amplicon covered a large region containing a number of potential target genes. The *CCND1* and *MYEOV* genes (11q13.3) were co-amplified in four cell

lines. Co-amplification of these genes has been reported in multiple myeloma, breast cancer and ESCC^[14]. *CCND1* is a downstream effector in the Wnt2/ β -catenin pathway and the most frequent target of amplification in several ESCC studies^[14,53,57]. While the *MYEOV* gene has been associated with cell proliferation in colon cancer^[58], its amplification in ESCC is not always matched by increased transcription due to its silencing by epigenetic mechanisms^[59]. The cortactin gene, *CTTN*, involved in cell motility^[60], was previously shown to be over expressed in ESCC pre-cancerous lesions, as well as in carcinogen induced murine ESCC supporting a role for this gene in ESCC carcinogenesis^[61]. The three fibroblast growth factor (FGF) genes, *FGF3*, *FGF4* and *FGF19* were part of the 11q13.3 amplicon. FGF and Wnt signaling pathways cross talk in a number of carcinogenesis scenarios^[62]. Activated FGF receptors activate the FRS-GR2-GAB1-PI3K-AKT signaling cascade, and downregulate GSK-3 β protein activity, thus hampering β -catenin phosphorylation and degradation^[62]. In particular, FGF19 ligand downregulates GSK-3 β activity, which results in the release and nuclear accumulation of β -catenin. Nuclear β -catenin activates the transcription of downstream genes including *C-MYC* and *CCND1*^[63].

In addition to the amplification of Wnt pathway activators, the *SFRP2* tumor suppressor gene locus was deleted at chromosome 4q22.1-q32.1 (Figure 7). The *SFRP2* gene encodes a frizzled-related protein and is part of the SFRP family of Wnt inhibitors. Loss of *SFRP2* is detected in medulloblastoma and is suggested to contribute to carcinogenesis through loss of inhibition of the Wnt pathway^[64].

The copy number data therefore suggests that the Wnt signaling pathway may be at work in these ESCC cell lines through one or the combined effects of genes activating the β -catenin transcriptional activity and/or the FGF signaling pathways as well as deletions of genes, at 4q22.1-q32.1, inhibiting this pathway. Amplicons at both 8q24 and 11q13.3-13.4 have been described in a variety of squamous cell carcinoma^[54,65-67] suggesting that the activation of pathways through the combined effects of genes at 8q24 and 11q13.3-13.4 contributes to the development and aggressiveness of SCC.

In addition to the *SFRP2* gene, the three tumor suppressor genes *BMR1B*, *SMAD1* and *CASP6* were also targets of deletion at 4q22.1-q32.1. Both *BMR1B* and *SMAD1* genes have previously been reported to have decreased expression in gliomas correlating with poor survival^[68], and *BMR1B* decreased expression in breast cancer is associated with increased cell proliferation and poor prognosis^[69]. The *CASP6* gene encodes the proapoptotic caspase-6 protein^[70].

Although large 3q amplicons are commonly observed in squamous carcinoma^[71,72] in this study the 6 Mb, 3q11.2-12.2 amplicon was focal and involved the *MINA* gene. This gene has previously been reported to be over-expressed in 83% of ESCC in one study and its inhibition was shown to suppress ESCC cell proliferation^[73].

A 43 Mb region of deletion at 8p23.2-q11.1 (4078057-47043375 bp) was observed in the five cell lines and involved five potential target genes. These included the *BNIP3L* gene deleted or downregulated in prostate cancer and malignant melanomas, respectively^[65,74], the *LZTS1* gene, deleted in oral squamous cell carcinomas and downregulated in breast carcinomas^[75,76]; and the three *TNFR* genes, *TNFRSF10A*, *TNFRSF10B* and *TNFRSF10C*, whose epigenetic inactivation was reported in gastric cancers^[77]. An 8p loss, was previously detected by conventional CGH in a study performed on 29 South African black and colored ESCC patients^[78]. Chromosome 8p22 loss has also been reported in prostate, breast, lymphoma, hepatocellular and colorectal cancers^[79-83].

Active smoking is linked to increased fragile site expression^[84] and is also one of the primary risk factors associated with ESCC in South Africa^[85]. We previously hypothesized that deletions affecting anti-oncogenes located at fragile sites may contribute to the etiology of ESCC in South Africa and reported *FHIT* intragenic deletions in these cell lines and a small cohort of patients^[40]. *FHIT* gene deletions were confirmed here supporting its role in ESCC carcinogenesis.

Deletion at 18q23 involved the *SMAD4* and *DCC* genes in all cell lines. Both genes have previously been reported to be down regulated in ESCC either by deletion, mutation or methylation^[86]. Decreased expression of the *SMAD4* gene, a tumor suppressor of the transforming growth factor β family signaling pathway, has been associated with ESCC tumor invasion^[87]. The *DCC* gene was shown to be frequently methylated in ESCC tumor specimens^[88].

In summary, breakpoints at 1p11 and 3p11 were recurrent in the five ESCC cell lines and may point to genes such as *EPHA3* that may be involved in ESCC carcinogenesis. Copy number alterations involved both amplicons previously reported in squamous cell carcinoma (8q24, 11q13 and 3q11) as well as novel regions of significant amplification (11q22.1-q22.3, 5p15.2 and 18p11.32). The finding that a significant number of genes that were amplified (*FGF3*, *FGF4*, *FGF19*, *CCND* and *C-MYC*) or deleted (*SFRP2* gene) are involved in the Wnt and FGF signaling pathways suggest that these pathways may be activated in these ESCC cell lines. These results warrant expression studies of these genes in both cell lines and patients' specimens. Of interest, should FGF gene expression be increased, ESCC patients may benefit from the respective FGF targeted therapies recently developed^[89,90].

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We thank Elsabe Scott for culturing the cell lines.

COMMENTS

Background

Esophageal squamous cell carcinoma (ESCC) is a major cause of cancer death in the world and has a peculiar epidemiology with worldwide geographic

pockets of high incidence particularly in Asia and Africa. In South Africa, in the Eastern Cape region, ESCC represents the leading cancer affecting men and the second most common cancer in woman. There is a need to identify biomarkers to better understand the pathophysiology of this cancer and inform future diagnostic and therapeutic strategies for these patients. Established cell lines provide a unique resource to investigate both the presence of chromosomes translocations and copy number imbalances.

Research frontiers

A limited number of ESCC cell lines, all established in Asia, were reported to date. These have been investigated with molecular cytogenetic techniques of limited resolution and no key pathways have been reported previously.

Innovations and breakthroughs

This is the first comprehensive molecular cytogenetic study of five ESCC cell lines established in South Africa. The authors combined high-resolution whole genome array copy number analysis with conventional cytogenetics and multi-color fluorescence *in situ* hybridization to assess common chromosomal imbalances. Interestingly, a significant number of genes that were amplified (*FGF3*, *FGF4*, *FGF19*, *CCND1* and *C-MYC*) or deleted (*SFRP2* gene) are involved in the Wnt and FGF signaling pathways. In addition, a deletion within or near the *EPHA3* gene was present in 4 of these cell lines, corresponding to a translocation breakpoint at 3p11.2 shared in some cell lines.

Applications

These results suggest that the Wnt and FGF pathways may be involved in the initiation or progression of ESCC. They also point to the *EPHA3* gene as an added potential key gene. Further study on patients' specimens and functional studies will determine the significance of these genes in ESCC pathogenesis.

Terminology

High-resolution 250K single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) arrays cover at least one SNP per 100 kb of DNA, using an average of 24 probes per SNP. The copy number data are derived from the summary of non-polymorphic SNPs and examined as a ratio to a reference genome. Changes in intensity ratios are indicative of amplification/deletions. The Wnt and fibroblast growth factor (FGF) signaling pathways are involved in tissue homeostasis as well as in cell proliferation and differentiation. Although their mechanisms differ, these two pathways cross talk through GSK3 β inhibition.

Peer review

The manuscript by Brown and coworkers demonstrates that a significant number of genes that were amplified or deleted are involved in the Wnt and FGF signaling pathways in five cell lines established from South African ESCC patients. They suggest that these pathways are activated in these cell lines. The overall goal of the paper is relevant. The data presented are solid and credible. The results are interesting and clinically important.

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Characterization of a novel rat cholangiocarcinoma cell culture model-CGCCA

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standard MTT assay was used to measure the growth. The phenotype of CACCA cell and xenograft was determined by immunohistochemical study. We also determine the chromosomal alterations of CGCCA, G-banding and spectral karyotyping studies were performed. The CGCCA cell line was transplanted into the nude mice for examining its tumorigenicity. 2-Deoxy-2-(¹⁸F)fluoro-D-glucose (FDG) autoradiography was also performed to evaluate the FDG uptake of the tumor xenograft.

RESULTS: The doubling time for the CGCCA cell line was 32 h. After transplantation into nude mice, FDG autoradiography showed that the tumors formed at the cell transplantation site had a latency period of 4-6 wk with high FDG uptake excluding necrosis tissue. Moreover, immunohistochemical staining revealed prominent cytoplasmic expression of c-erb-B2, CK19, c-Met, COX- II, EGFR, MUC4, and a negative expression of K-ras. All data confirmed the phenotypic features of the CGCCA cell line coincide with the xenograft mice tumors, indicating cells containing the tumorigenicity of CCA originated from CCA. In addition, karyotypic banding analysis showed that the diploid (2n) cell status combines with ring and giant rod marker chromosomes in these clones; either both types simultaneously appeared or only one type of marker chromosome in a pair appeared in a cell. The major materials contained in the marker chromosome were primarily identified from chromosome 4.

CONCLUSION: The current CGCCA cell line may be used as a non-K-ras effect CCA model and to obtain information and reveal novel pathways for CCA. Further applications regarding tumor markers or therapeutic targeting of CCA should be addressed accordingly.

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Key words: Cholangiocarcinoma; Rat cell line; Establishment; Characterization; Thioacetamide

Abstract

AIM: To characterize a culture model of rat CCA cells, which were derived from a transplantable TTA-induced CCA and designated as Chang Gung CCA (CGCCA).

METHODS: The CGCCA cells were cultured at *in vitro* passage 12 times on a culture dish in DMEM medium. To measure the doubling time, 10³ cells were plated in a 96-well plate containing the growth medium. The cells were harvested 4 to 10 d after seeding, and a

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INTRODUCTION

Cholangiocarcinoma is a malignant neoplasm derived from bile duct epithelium (i.e. cholangiocytes). It is characterized by a great diversity of symptoms commonly occurring in the late course of the disease, and therefore making treatment puzzling. The biological behavior of the tumor and early intrahepatic and/or extrahepatic spread limit the efficacy of surgical management to perform a curative resection; although liver transplantation may provide an alternative option for CCA treatment, high rates of recurrence still limit liver transplantation for most CCA patients^[1] and usually lead to a poor prognosis. Three- to five-year survival rates, even with resection, remain dismal^[2-7]; in addition, neither radiation therapy nor chemotherapy significantly improves long-term survival rates. This cancer is related to a wide range of risk factors, such as infestation with liver flukes, primary sclerosing cholangitis, and hepatolithiasis, that cause the incidence rates of CCA to vary greatly among different areas of the world^[8]. However, many data have shown that the incidence and mortality rates of CCA have been rising worldwide over the past several decades, particularly the intrahepatic CCA^[9-11].

Therefore, our goal is to identify potential possible diagnostic biomarkers as the investigation of the molecular pathophysiology associated with this disease becomes more and more important and necessary. In our previous study, a thioacetamide (TAA)-induced CCA rat model was successfully established, and serves as a powerful pre-clinical platform for therapeutic and chemoprevention strategies for human CCA^[12]. Herein, we further developed the rat CCA tumor cells as a cell line designated as Chang Gung CCA (CGCCA), and then transplanted the cells into a xenograft of nude mice to further confirm the characteristics of this cell line. A series of IHC studies, including CK19, c-Met, COX-II, and MUC4, were performed to determine the phenotype of the cell line. The genotype was examined by cytogenetic studies, and the 2-Deoxy-2-(¹⁸F)fluoro-D-glucose (FDG)-avid character of the CGCCA xenograft of the nude mice was demonstrated by animal PET. All of the evidence proved that the CGCCA cell line rat was derived from the original primary tumor formed by the TAA carcinogen. Our current work supports the view that the systematic cell cultures may provide a relevant CCA model to study the complex mechanisms involved in CCA by revealing the

potential pathogenesis of this disease. In addition, we may be able to determine the possible diagnostic markers for the early detection and diagnosis of this disease.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Animal study

This study was approved by the experimental animal ethics committee at the Chang Gung Memorial Hospital, Taiwan. The investigation conformed to the US National Institute of Health (NIH) guidelines for the care and use of laboratory animals (Publication No. 85-23, revised 1996). Male Sprague-Dawley (SD) rats weighing 319 ± 14 g were used in the experiments. The rats were housed in an animal room with a 12:12 hour light-dark cycle (light from 08:00 AM to 08:00 PM) at an ambient temperature of 22 ± 1 °C. Food and water were available *ad libitum*.

Establishment of TAA-treated rats CGCCA cell line

The cell isolation procedure as described by Lai *et al*^[13] was applied with minor modifications in this study. In brief, hyperplastic bile ductular epithelial cells were obtained from the liver of the male Sprague-Dawley (SD) rats treated with TAA 300 mg/L daily after 25 wk of exposure. The isolation of the CGCCA cell line was established from the nest of cholangiocarcinoma by employing differential cell harvesting with 0.05% trypsin and 0.53 mmol/L EDTA (Life Technologies), and then combined with subsequent serial propagation suspended in a cell culture medium composed of DMEM with 100 U/mL penicillin and 100 U/mL streptomycin (basal medium) plus 10% fetal bovine serum^[13].

Estimating growth kinetics of cells in vitro

The CGCCA cells were cultured at *in vitro* passage 12 times on a culture dish in DMEM medium containing 10% fetal bovine serum. To measure the doubling time, 10^3 cells were plated in a 96-well plate containing the growth medium as described above. The cells were harvested 4 to 10 d after seeding, and a standard MTT assay was used to measure the growth according to the instruction manual (MTT Cell Growth Assay Kit; #CT01; Chemicon). The doubling time of the cell population was estimated based on the slope angle of the linear regression model for the four time points.

Determine phenotype of CACCA cells and xenograft by immunohistochemical study

CGCCA rat cells were grown on a miniature cell culture vessel chamber, which permits cells to be grown, fixed, stained, and analyzed all on the same slide (#154461 Lab-Tek II Chamber Slide System; Nalge Nunc International, USA). A total of 2000 cells per well were grown overnight, rinsed with PBS twice, fixed with 4% PFA for 1 min, and perforated with 1% Tween 20 for 1 min. In addition, we further compared the cells with the xenograft mice tumors. The mice tissues were obtained for the immunoreactivities study once the mice tumors reached a

diameter of 1.0 cm. The slides were then stained according to the routine IHC staining as described previously^[14]. In brief, the primary antibodies CK19 (MAB-1675; Millipore; Temecula, CA), K-ras (clone sc-30; Santa Cruz Biotechnology Vision Corporation; Fremont, CA), c-erb-B2, COX-II, EGFR, MET, and MUC4 were diluted at 1:200 and 1:400, respectively (clone sc-284; Santa Cruz Biotechnologies; Santa Cruz, CA; M-3563; Dako Cytomation; RB-9072-9; Lab Vision Corporation; Fremont, CA; clone sc-161; Santa Cruz Biotechnology Vision Corporation; Fremont, CA; and 35-4900; Zymed S; San Francisco, CA) and incubated overnight at 4°C. The slides were then washed three times with TBST, mounted, and analyzed under microscope by authors blindly before visualization with the DAKO LSAB2 System (Peroxidase; DAKO A/S; No. K0675). Control slides were incubated with the secondary antibody only.

Cytogenetic study of the CGCCA cell line

To determine the chromosomal alterations of CGCCA, G-banding and spectral karyotyping (SKY) studies were performed. The CGCCA cells were grown under the conditions as described above. After the cells were harvested, a metaphase chromosome spread was prepared for G-banding and SKY analysis^[15]. At least ten metaphases were analyzed after G-banding (data not shown). For SKY analysis, 22 differentially labeled chromosome-specific painting probes and Cot-1 DNA were denatured and hybridized to the tumor metaphase chromosomes according to the protocol recommended by the manufacturer (Applied Spectral Imaging; Migdal Haemek, Israel) with some modifications as previously described^[15]. Image acquisitions were performed using a SD200 Spectracube system (Applied Spectral Imaging) mounted on a Leica DM2500 microscope with a custom-designed optical filter (SKY-1; Chroma Technology; Brattleboro, VT). The clonality criteria and the karyotype description followed the recommendations of the International System for Human Cytogenetic Nomenclature (ISCN 2005)^[16].

Heterotransplantation of CGCCA cells in nude mice

Seven male nude mice (BALB/cA Jcl nu/nu) (6 to 8 wk old; 20 to 22 g body weight) were purchased from Clea Japan (Ohita, Japan). The CGCCA cell line was transplanted into the nude mice for examining its tumorigenicity. Each of the 7 mice received a 50 μ L subcutaneous inoculation that contained ten million CGCCA cells suspended in the thigh area. Tumor size was measured with a digimatic caliper, and tumor volume was calculated according to the subcutaneous tissue on the flank of each mouse using the formula $V = 1/6\pi abc$ (a, b, and c indicate the diameter in each axis). The xenograft developed after implantation of CGCCA; 4 to 6 wk static later, all animals were sacrificed by CO₂ asphyxia. The xenograft was dissected, and the histopathology of the xenograft was evaluated as described^[12]. The xenografted tumors were compared with the original cell line for morphology changes.

FDG autoradiography

FDG positron emission tomography (PET) is an important imaging technique for the evaluation CCA in humans^[17]. To evaluate the different levels of fluorodeoxyglucose uptake of the CGCCA cell line xenograft of the nude mice, FDG autoradiography was performed 4-6 wk after tumor implantation. Animals were food-deprived for 8 h, and 37 MBq of FDG was given intravenously. The animals were sacrificed by decapitation after deep anesthesia with isoflurane 45 min after radiotracer injection. The details of the quantitative autoradiography procedures have been described by the authors^[18]. In brief, the target tissues, including liver, tumor, and thigh muscle, were quickly removed and placed on dry ice for fixation. The frozen samples were cut to a 10- μ m thickness and mounted on glass slides. The slides were exposed to a phosphor image plate (IP) for 2 h and digitized using FLA5100 scanner (Fuji; Japan, Tokyo). The radioactivities of the adjacent tissue sections (assumed to possess the same radiotracer distribution) were measured by γ counter and decay corrected to the time of injection. The correlations between the radioactivities and IP signal intensities were established. All IP signal intensities were converted to radioactivities by using the following calibration curve. Regions of interest (ROI) were manually drawn around the edge of the tumor xenograft activity by visual inspection. The mean activities were recorded from the entire ROI. The percentage injected dose per gram (%ID/g) was calculated as follows: %ID/g = activity in a gram of tissue (*C*)/injected dose \times 100%. The slices were stained with hematoxylin-eosin (HE) for histologic examination.

Statistics analysis

All data are presented as mean \pm SD. Group comparisons of FDG uptake among tissues were determined using analysis of variance (ANOVA). All statistical analysis was performed using SPSS computer software (Chicago, IL) and a *P* value of < 0.05 was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Estimating growth kinetics of cells in vitro

To establish a TAA-induced rat cell line, 25 wk of orally administered TAA rat liver tissues were harvested for culturing. CGCCA rat cells showed a typical growth curve that included lag, logarithmic, and stationary phases (as shown in Figure 1). The doubling time of the CGCCA cell line was calculated to compare the growth of 10³ cells. Under the series surveillance, a cell population doubling time of 32 h was determined (6 points at day 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10). When the CGCCA cell line underwent the 26th *in vitro* passage, we harvested cells to perform the cytogenetic or IHC experiments in the current study. The cell line has been maintained in culture for approximately a year so far. Therefore, viable CGCCA cells have been cryopreserved at almost every *in vitro* passage time, from which new cultures may be established.

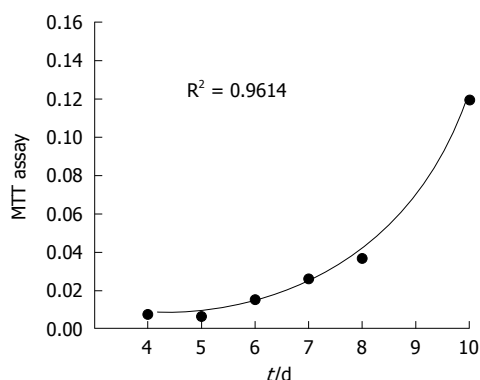


Figure 1 MTT assay. Twenty-five weeks orally administrated TAA rat liver tissues cells have been harvested and successfully cultured. The cells followed a typical growth curve; lag, logarithmic, and stationary phases during culturing were estimated. Under series surveillance, a cell population doubling time of 32 h was determined (6 points at day 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and 10).

Tumorigenicity study of CCA in transplanted mice

To examine whether the CGCCA cell line contained the tumorigenicity of CCA, the cells were transplanted into the thigh area of seven recipient nude mice and given a 100% incidence of CCA. In addition, their morphological features were essentially identical to those of the parental tumor from which the tumorigenic CCA cells were originally isolated. Tumors formed at the cell transplantation site had a latency period of 4-6 wk, as represented by the photomicrographs shown in Figure 2.

Autoradiography

All seven mice developed a large tumor 4-6 wk after tumor cell implantation. Necropsy and histology confirmed the presence of TAA-induced CCA in 7 mice (Figure 2). Central necrosis could be observed in all large tumors suggesting the fast growth of this malignant tumor. Of note, all tumor cells, excluding necrosis tissue, possessed high FDG uptake. The quantitative uptake value of fluorodeoxyglucose in muscle, liver, and tumor were 0.67 ± 0.17 , 2.23 ± 0.85 , and 5.00 ± 2.15 %ID/g, respectively (Figure 3A). The tumor to liver and tumor to muscle ratios of FDG uptake were 2.25 ± 0.43 and 7.48 ± 1.78 , respectively (Figure 3B). These data are highly consistent with our previous *in vivo* findings, indicating that FDG metabolic activity is significantly higher in the CGCCA xenograft in the nude mice.

The rat CGCCA cell line and heterotransplantation of nude mice tissues were evaluated by immunohistochemistry (IHC) stainings.

To demonstrate the phenotypic characteristics and histopathology of CGCCA cells, IHC staining was performed on either the cell line or mouse xenograft tissues. The CGCCA cells revealed prominent cytoplasmic expression of CK19 (biliary cytokeratin 19), as well as c-erb-B2, c-Met, COX-II, EGFR, and MUC4 (Figure 4C-H). However, the CGCCA cells revealed a negative expression of K-ras (Figure 4A and B). All of the data from the neoplastic glandular epithelia of the TAA-induced rat CGCCA cell

line were highly consistent with previous *in vivo* findings, indicating that these proto-oncogenes are concordantly overexpressed. The tumor tissues from the heterotransplanted nude mice retained the characteristic traits of their *in vitro* cell counterparts. Phenotypically, xenograft highly expressed cytoplasmic immunostaining of CK19, mucin-producing tubular adenocarcinomas closely resembling in their histological and phenotypic features those of the parent tumor; besides, COX-II, MET, and MUC4 revealed strong and diffuse cytoplasmic immunostaining as well (Figure 4I-L).

Cytogenetic study of the CGCCA cell line

Spectral karyotyping (SKY) and G-banded analyses were performed to determine the genetic alterations in the CGCCA cell line using the 26th week's TAA-induced rat CGCCA cell line. The cytogenetics study revealed a number of chromosomes ranging between 50 to 56 diploidy (2n) karyotype with complicated genetic abnormalities of marker chromosomes. Obviously, at least two clones were identified in this cell line. In the clones, the loss of whole chromosome 8 and 20 was observed in all analyzed cells; multiple translocated chromosomes formed at the site of chromosome 2q10, such as t(2;3), t(2;5), t(2;3;10); similarly, at the site of chromosome 4q10, commonly formed t(4;13) and t(4;11;4) fusion chromosomes were observed as well. Further, i(6)(q10) was frequently observed in most of the clones. Notably, two major similar contents of ring and giant rod marker chromosomes were involved in these clones; they either simultaneously appeared in a cell or only one type of marker chromosome appeared as a pair to be observed (Figure 5).

DISCUSSION

CCA is the second most common primary hepatic tumor after hepatocellular carcinoma, which is also known as a slowly progressing bile-duct cancer. CCA usually originates in the liver or the intrahepatic bile ducts, and it is characterized by a poor prognosis. Incidence rates account for between 5% and 30% of primary liver cancers and vary geographically^[19]. For instance, peripheral CCA represented 3.58% of all primary liver cancers reported by the Japan Liver Cancer Society^[1]. According to the report of Bartlett^[20], the mortality of intrahepatic CCA has increased 15-fold, and it is currently a more common cause of mortality than hepatocellular carcinoma. New insights into the pathogenesis of this disease, either by using a panel of systematic *in vitro* cell lines for revealing the obscure mechanisms of CCA, or animal models for development of novel therapeutic strategies, are urgently required for clinical-therapeutic purposes.

To our knowledge, there are two published human CCA cell lines available for the purpose of study; however, both have limited availability due to their long-term passage *in vitro*, and they have been shown to be markedly aneuploid. With respect to experimental animal CCA culture models, two published reports have described

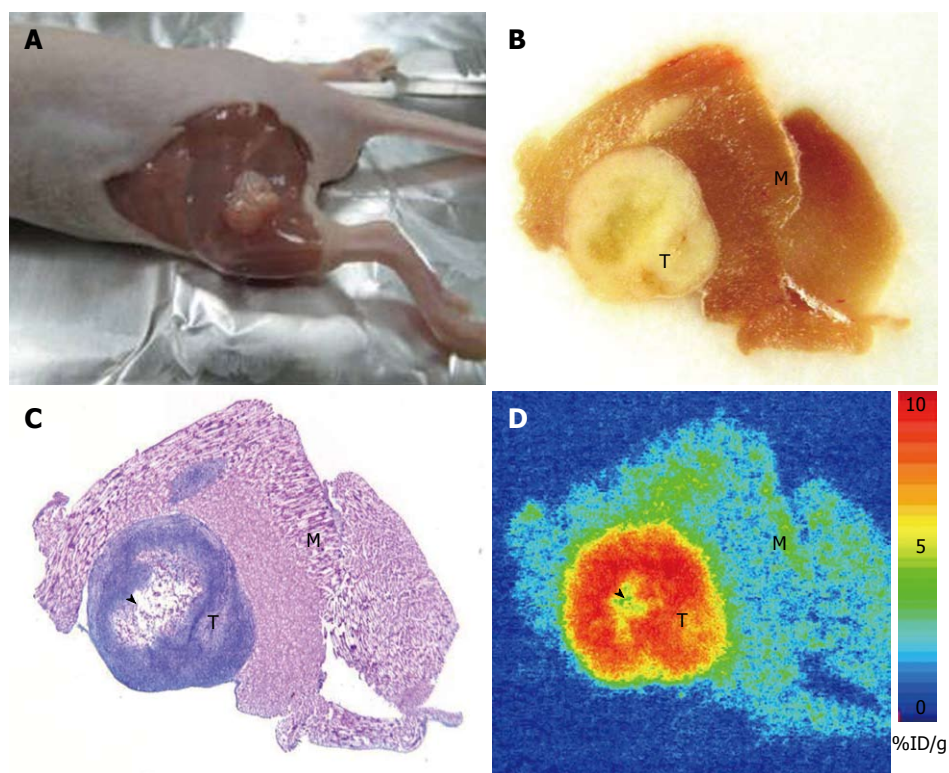


Figure 2 The tumors formed at the cell transplantation site of the CCA xenograft with central necrosis in all large tumors suggesting the fast growth of this malignant tumor at the thigh of the nude mice had a latency period of 4-6 wk and, as represented by (A) gross picture, (B) the photomicrographs of the necropsy, (C) histology, and (D) autoradiography (D). Of note, all tumor cells excluding necrosis tissue possessed high 2-Deoxy-2-¹⁸Ffluoro-D-glucose uptake.

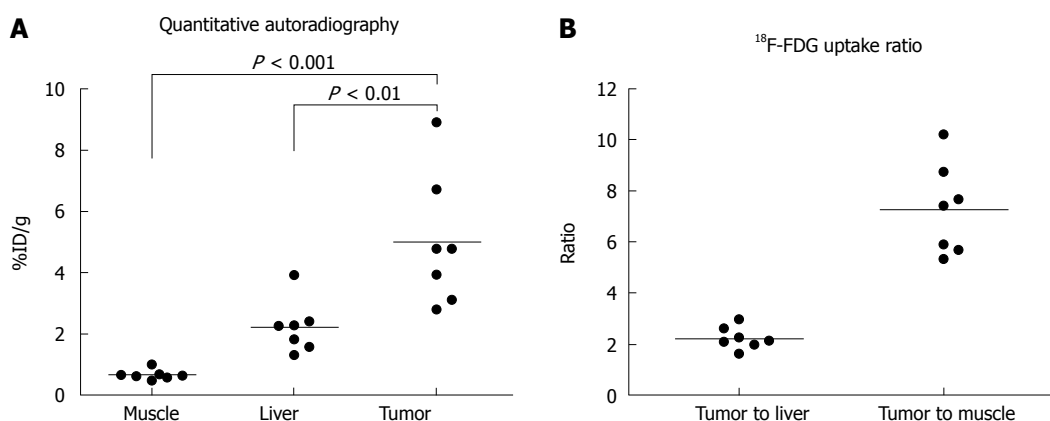


Figure 3 The mean quantitative uptake values of fluorodeoxyglucose in the muscle, liver, and tumor represented by injected dose per gram of tissue (%ID/g) were (A) 0.67 ± 0.17 , 2.23 ± 0.85 , and 5.00 ± 2.15 , respectively. The tumor to liver and tumor to muscle ratios of FDG uptake were (B) 2.25 ± 0.43 and 7.48 ± 1.78 , respectively.

the process of establishment; one was developed from liver fluke-associated CCA induced in a hamster model^[21]; the other was developed from furan-fed rat CCA culture model^[22]. We have been working for several years and have succeeded in establishing a TAA-induced rat intestinal-type CCA model. This model provides a unique and useful study tool for CCA investigation. The important aspects of the cellular and molecular pathogenesis of CCA that are potentially relevant to the human disease have been addressed in previous reports as well^[12,23]. In the current study, we further aim to establish a CCA cell

line from a TAA rat CCA model and report its identical karyotype as well as immunohistochemical characteristics. This systematic *in vitro* cell line panel will be used as a valuable study tool for revealing the obscure mechanisms of CCA, and searching for the potential biomarkers for CCA tumorigenesis.

Regarding the growth kinetics of the CGCCA cell, CGCCA cells exhibit a 32-h doubling time. This is longer than C611B cells derived from a furan rat model, which exhibited a cell doubling time of approximately 24 h and were aneuploid^[13]; but comparable with the hamster liver

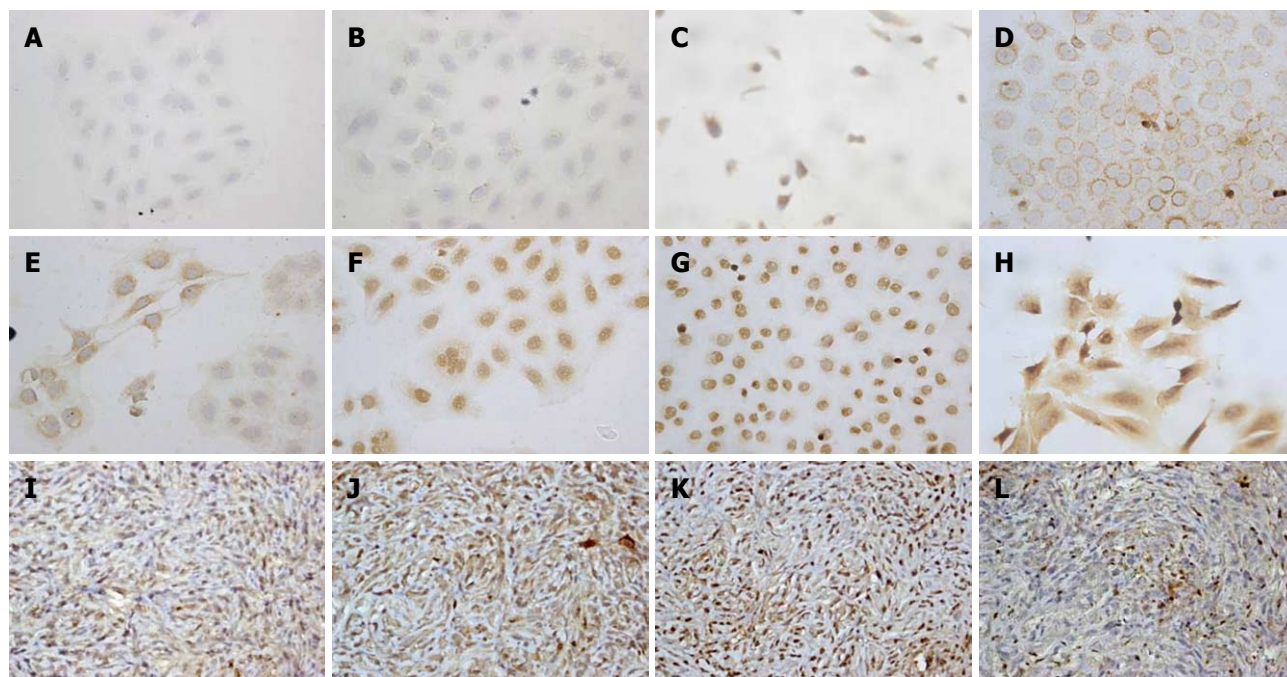


Figure 4 Immunohistochemical staining ($\times 400$) analysis of Chang Gung CCA cells (upper two panels, A-H) and xenograft tissues of CCA mouse models (lower panel, I-L). A: Negative control; B: Negative expression of K-ras; C: EGFR weakly expressed in a cytoplasmic distribution; D-G: Her-II, Biliary cytokeratin (CK19), COX-II, and Met diffusely expressed in a cytoplasmic distribution; H: MUC-4 strongly and diffusely expressed in a cytoplasmic and membranous distribution; I-L: The results revealed that CK-19, COX-II, Met, and MUC4 are diffusely expressed in a cytoplasmic distribution in the rat CCA xenograft.

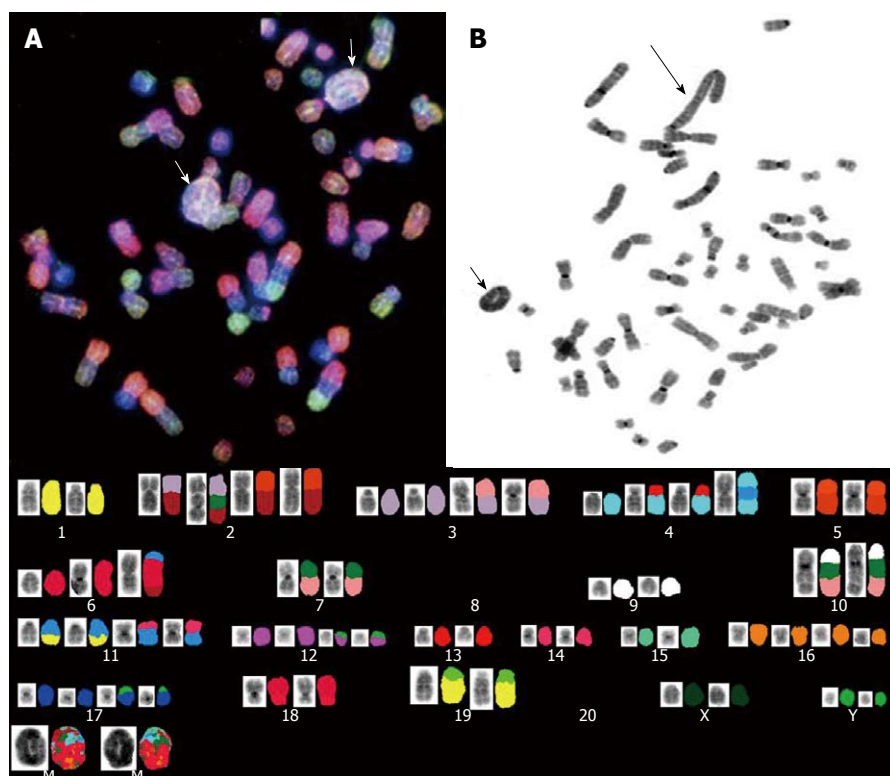


Figure 5 Examples of the karyotype spectral karyotyping analysis revealed by the 26th passage cell culture; the analysis established that, from the 25th week, TAA-induced CCA rat cells presented either (A) a ring chromosome (short arrows) or (B) giant rod chromosome (long arrow); complicated chromosomal alterations could be observed in most of the chromosomes and are illustrated at the bottom.

flake-associated CCA cells^[21]. While skeptics question whether human population doubling times can be slower

than animal cell lines, after comparing the population doubling times with some human CCA cell lines cultured

under similar conditions, the human cell lines presented range from 50 to 180 h^[24-27].

Regarding phenotype, the strong and diffuse expression of biliary cytokeratin (CK19) confirms the bile ductular ontogeny of the CGCCA cells and xenograft. The molecular alterations involved in CGCCA cells are similar to TAA rat models previously described^[12,22,28,29]; the receptor tyrosine kinases c-Met, c-erb-B2 (also known as HER-2/neu), and EGFR and their interact elements, COX- II, MUC4, were over-expressed in the current neoplastic cells, either in CGCCA cells or xenograft tissues. It is well known that receptor tyrosine kinases have become important therapeutic targets for anti-tumor molecularly targeted therapies. There is increasing evidence to suggest that, when the HGF/SF interacts with the receptor tyrosine kinases c-Met, the activation could lead to a plethora of biological and biochemical effects in the cell^[30] and may play an important role in the development and/or progression of human CCA^[31-34]. Other molecular alterations include the overexpression of COX-2^[5,35,36] and MUC4, which acts as a ligand for c-erb-B2 and was also confirmed to be overexpressed in the CGCCA cells in our current study. Furthermore, we recently demonstrated that MUC4 could be an independent risk factor of poor prognosis in clinical patients with the mass-forming type of intrahepatic CCA who underwent hepatectomy^[37].

Notably, negative K-ras expression was observed in the current CGCCA cells. It is known that very high frequency multiple K-ras gene mutations at codon 12 are commonly detected in CCA (15/15 showed one mutation, and 9/15 showed more than two mutations)^[38]. Evidence has further indicated that the mutation status of the K-ras gene affects the response of cetuximab, an epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR) inhibitor^[39]. Therefore, K-ras is considered to be one of the important factors involved in the stepwise progression of neoplastic cells to full malignancy. It is also proven to be related to the higher incidence of bile duct cancers that arise distally in the common bile duct^[40,41]. Therefore, the current CGCCA cell line could offer a valuable suitable model that could avoid the influence from K-ras expression.

Nevertheless, evidence of the overexpression of these typical oncoproteins in the CGCCA cell line provides strong resemblances with the human CCA disease, as well as an avenue for future pathogenetic or pharmacologic studies.

In addition, there is evidence that FDG PET imaging may be useful in the diagnosis and management of both hilar and peripheral cholangiocarcinomas in humans^[17]. We have previously shown that the FDG uptake pattern in TAA-induced rat CCA was similar to that observed in other human studies^[18]. In the present study, our CGCCA xenograft closely mimicked the TAA-induced rat CCA with regard to fluorodeoxyglucose uptake as evaluated by FDG autoradiography. The xenograft had a high tumor to liver and tumor to muscle FDG uptake ratio, which makes *in vivo* tumor detection possible by FDG microP-

ET. The data of the animal PET with regard to the TAA mice models were highly consistent with our previously published *in vivo* findings, indicating that FDG metabolic activity is significantly higher in the CGCCA xenograft in the nude mice^[18].

The results of cytogenetic analysis with regard to CGCCA cells revealed complicated chromosomal alterations, and the hyperdiploid karyotype has been characterized in the CGCCA cell line. Basically, the hyperdiploid karyotype is thought to arise from the maintenance of heterozygosity. According to the marker chromosomes observed in the CGCCA cell line, at least three clones could be identified in current cell line, suggesting that the hyperdiploidy does not arise from a near haploid precursor. In addition, although hyperdiploid clones have been identified, all the clones tend to show a pattern of chromosome loss with all copies of chromosomes 8 and 20; further, the gains are more often tetrasomic than trisomic for the chromosomes 2, 3, 4, 11, 12, 16, and 17 (Figure 5). Notably, the marker rings and/or giant rod chromosomes could be observed in every cell as well; the materials contained in the marker chromosomes of the ring or rod shapes varied from cell to cell; however, the major materials mostly came from chromosome 4 as was demonstrated by SKY (Figure 5). To our knowledge, rings are rare in benign tumors, whereas they are common in certain invasive tumors. In addition, the ring chromosomes are even common in certain tumors, especially in subgroups of sarcomas where they may be used as diagnostic indicators for these lesions as described by Gisselsson *et al.*^[42]. The other additional anomalies, such as translocations and other structural chromosome abnormalities, were present in approximately half of the cells; apparently, the presence of non-random alterations in every clone is most likely the primary change event; in addition, the duplication of chromosome 4 fragments are the most common additional change; deletion of chromosomes 8 and 20, and other random structural abnormalities, such as der(2)t(2;3)(q10;q2), der(2)t(3;10;2), der(2)t(2;5)(q10;q1), der(4)t(4;13)(q10;q?) × 2, der(4)t(4;11;4), are probably a secondary event (Figure 5).

However, although the presence of non-random translocations, such as der(3)t(3;7)(q10;q13), der(3)t(3;7)(q10;q13), der(5)t(5;8)(q10;q1), der(7)t(7;10)(q10;q1), der(11)t(11;1)(q10;q?), der(11)t(11;14)(q10;q?), der(11)t(11;14)(q10;q?), der(17)t(17;Y), der(18)t(18;6)(p10;q1), der(19)t(19;1)(q21;qter), indicates the occurrence of translocation and hyperdiploidy, none of them are known have clinical prognostic implications so far. Therefore, to improve the classification of the disease according to translocation rather than diploidy group in order to assign the correct prognostic implications, further cytogenetic studies to compare the disease stages combined with a series of clinical data for the evaluation of cases are necessary.

Accordingly, our findings suggest that the genes involved in the ring marker chromosomes could play a role in the early stage of tumor development. The correlation

between the conjecture of the cytogenetic changes and tumor progression was also consistent with our previous PET findings. We detected that a 100% initial visual yield of invasive CCA was observed by the 22nd week in rats; however, a 50% yield rate of invasive CCA was observed by the 16th week, and the occurrence of biliary dysplasia and invasive CCA precedes the development of hepatic fibrosis by 4 wk^[12].

In conclusion, the current CGCCA cell line was well established and characterized in order to obtain information regarding diagnostically useful tumor markers, which could shed light on a dark area of CCA tumorigenesis for a future understanding of human clinical therapeutics.

COMMENTS

Background

Cholangiocarcinoma is characterized by a great diversity of symptoms commonly occurring in the late course of the disease, and therefore making treatment puzzling. In addition, neither radiation therapy nor chemotherapy significantly improves long-term survival rates. However, many data have shown that the incidence and mortality rates of CCA have been rising worldwide over the past several decades, particularly the intrahepatic CCA. Therefore, the goal is to identify potential possible diagnostic biomarkers as the investigation of the molecular pathophysiology associated with this disease becomes more and more important and necessary. Herein, the authors developed the rat CCA tumor cells as a cell line designated as Chang Gung CCA (CGCCA).

Research frontiers

Positive immunostaining of CK19, c-Met, COX-II, and MUC4 determined the phenotype of the cell line. The genotype was examined by cytogenetic studies, and the 2-Deoxy-2-(¹⁸F)fluoro-D-glucose-avid character of the CGCCA xenograft of the nude mice was demonstrated by animal PET. All of the evidence proved that the CGCCA cell line rat was derived from the original primary tumor formed by the TAA carcinogen.

Innovations and breakthroughs

The current work supports the view that the systematic cell cultures may provide a relevant CCA model to study the complex mechanisms involved in CCA by revealing the potential pathogenesis of this disease. In addition, the authors may be able to determine the possible diagnostic markers for the early detection and diagnosis of this disease.

Applications

The current CGCCA cell line was well established and characterized in order to obtain information regarding diagnostically useful tumor markers, which could shed light on a dark area of CCA tumorigenesis for a future understanding of human clinical therapeutics.

Peer review

The authors describe the characterization of a new cholangiocarcinoma cell line model and report its successful implantation into nude mice. The paper is well-written, clear and concise.

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α -fetoprotein involvement during glucocorticoid-induced precocious maturation in rat colon

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate the role of α -fetoprotein (AFP), a cancer-associated fetal glycoprotein, in glucocorticoid-induced precocious maturation in rat colon.

METHODS: Colons from suckling Sprague-Dawley rats were used in this study. Corticosterone acetate at a dose of 100 μ g/g body weight was given to normal pups on days 7, 9 and 11 after birth to induce hypercorticism. Control animals were injected with identical volumes of normal saline. Some rats receiving corticosterone 7 d after birth were also treated with mifepristone (RU38486), a glucocorticoid cytoplasm receptor antagonist to investigate the effects of glucocorticoids (GCs). The morphological changes of the crypt depth and villous height of the villous zone in colon were observed as indices

of colon maturation. Expression levels of AFP in colons were detected by reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction and Western blotting. To identify the cellular localization of AFP in developing rat colons, double-immunofluorescent staining was performed using antibodies to specific mesenchymal cell marker and AFP.

RESULTS: Corticosterone increased the crypt depth and villous height in the colon of 8- and 10-d-old rats with hypercorticism compared with that in the control animals (120% in 8-d-old rats and 118% in 10-d-old rats in villous height, $P = 0.021$; 145% in 8-d-old rats and 124% in 10-d-old rats in crypt depth, $P = 0.017$). These increases were accompanied by an increase of AFP expression in both mRNA and protein (2.5-folds in 8-d-old and 2.5-folds in 10-d-old rats higher than in control animals, $P = 0.035$; 1.8-folds in 8-d-old and 1.3-folds in 10-d-old rats higher than in control animals, $P = 0.023$). Increased crypt depth and villous height and increased expression of AFP in the colon of rats with hypercorticism were blocked by mifepristone. Both had positive staining for AFP or vimentin, and overlapped in mesenchymal cells at each tested colon.

CONCLUSION: GCs promote the development of rat colon. AFP appears to be involved, in part, in mediating the effects of GCs in the developmental colon.

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Key words: Glucocorticoids; α -fetoprotein; Precocious maturation; Colon; Rat

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INTRODUCTION

Glucocorticoids (GCs) have been routinely used in clinical practice to prevent diseases of prematurity such as respiratory distress syndrome. GCs treatment may reduce the incidence of necrotizing enterocolitis^[1-3], in which a typical immaturity of the intestine^[4-6] indicated that GCs may enhance intestinal maturation. Although this regulation seems to be mediated by the GCs receptor pathway, the precise regulatory mechanisms have not yet been documented.

The effect of GCs may require interactions with another tissue or cell type, such as mesenchyme^[7]. During late embryogenesis, the mouse colon develops from a pseudostratified, undifferentiated endoderm to a single-layered columnar epithelium accompanying with mesenchymal maturation. Mammalian α -fetoprotein (AFP) is a single-chain glycoprotein with a molecular mass ranging from 66 to 72 kDa and 3%-5% carbohydrate (glycan) content. Recent reports showed that the AFP was expressed and produced in mesenchymal cells and was considered as an important growth factor with a specific function in gastrointestinal development, including pancreas and colon^[8-10]. In contrast, AFP enhancer segment contains a sequence resembling the steroid hormone response element and the enhancer activity was mediated by dexamethasone in a dose-dependent manner^[11]. Thus, AFP seems to play a role in GCs-induced precocious gastrointestinal maturation.

Numerous investigators have reported the ability of GCs to stimulate intestinal maturation in postnatal rodents^[12-14]. However, little is known about the involvement of GCs in rat colon during development.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Chemicals

Corticosterone acetate (CA), gel mount aqueous mounting medium (G0918), and mifepristone were purchased from Sigma Chemical (St. Louis, USA). TRIZOL reagent was purchased from Invitrogen Life Technologies (Burlington, Ontario, Canada). Takara RNA polymerase chain reaction (PCR) 3.0 Kit was from Takara (Dalian, China). Rabbit anti-goat IgG conjugates and goat polyclonal anti-AFP were from Santa Cruz Biotech (USA). Monoclonal antibody of anti-vimentin was from Chemicon International (Temecula, CA, USA). Protease inhibitor cocktail was from Roche (Mannheim, Germany). Nitrocellulose membranes were from Bio-Rad (Hercules, CA, USA), BCA Protein Assay Kit and enhanced chemiluminescence reagents were from Pierce (Rockford, IL, USA) and CBL202 from Chemicon International, Inc. Temecula (CA, USA).

Animals

Pregnant female Sprague-Dawley rats in late gestation were purchased from Nanjing Medical University Animal Centre. After arrival, cages were checked twice daily for pups. The day of birth was designated as day 0, and experiments were conducted at various ages thereafter. Litter size was restricted to 12 pups per dam that was performed at day 2 postpartum. All animals were kept in a temperature-controlled room ($22 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$) and maintained on a 12-h light-dark cycle. To prevent the stress of removing one animal from a cage on sequential days, all the animals in a cage were killed on a single day. Young rats were never separated from their mothers except during the period of fasting. During this period, the pups were placed in cages artificially warmed by electric light bulbs. Before studies, all rats were fasted for various times. To prevent mortality from prolonged fasting, the 8- and 10-d-old rats were fasted for 18 h, and 14-d-old rats were fasted for 24 h. Experiments were designed using littermate controls disregarding the sex of the pups. All animals were killed between 8 and 10 am^[15]. CA was given at a dose of 100 $\mu\text{g/g}$ body weight by intraperitoneal injection to normal pups on days 7, 9, and 11 to induce hypercorticism. Control animals were given identical volumes of normal saline^[16]. To observe the effect of GCs on suckling rats, another experiment was designed as follows: 100 $\mu\text{g/g}$ body weight of CA was given once to pairs of 7-d-old pups (HC group) by intraperitoneal injection. Control pups (C group) were injected with identical volumes of normal saline at the same day. Pups were treated with 50 $\mu\text{g/g}$ body weight mifepristone (17 β -hydroxy-11 β -4-dimethyl-aminophenyl-17 α -propynylestra-4,9-diene-3-one, RU38486), a glucocorticoid cytoplasm receptor antagonist alone (M group), or 100 $\mu\text{g/g}$ hydrocortisone plus 50 $\mu\text{g/g}$ mifepristone (H+M group)^[17].

Colons from control and hypercorticism rats at 8, 10 and 14 d of age were used in this study and five rats were used in each age stage. Samples were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde overnight at 4°C followed by a standard protocol of dehydration and paraffin embedding. Five-micrometer sections were prepared for morphological and fluorescence immunohistochemical studies. Total RNA and lysate were extracted from tissues at each time point for the reverse transcriptase PCR (RT-PCR) and Western blotting analysis. The study protocol was approved by the Nanjing Medical University Animal Care and Use Committee.

Morphology

Routine hematoxylin and eosin-stained sections for light microscopic (LM) evaluation were used to study the hormonal effects in the morphological development of colon. Slides were viewed under an Olympus BX51 microscope (Olympus Optical, Tokyo, Japan). Morphologic measurement made by the same technician was blinded to the different treatment groups. Under LM, the crypt depth and villous height of the villous zone were mea-

sured using an image analysis system (NYD100). The group means were obtained based on 10 villi and 20 crypts per slide, with a minimum of five animals in each group.

Serial levels of AFP

Blood samples of rats were centrifuged at $2000 \times g$ for 20 min, and sera were stored at -20°C until analyzed. AFP levels in the rat serum were measured by the routine standard radioactive method used in the Nanjing Clinical Nuclear Medicine Center (Nanjing, China).

RNA expression of AFP

Total RNA was isolated from tissues by Trizol according to the protocol supplied by the manufacturers. cDNA was synthesized using Takara RNA PCR 3.0 Kit in a total volume of 10 μL , containing 0.5 μL avian myeloblastosis virus RT, 0.5 μL random 9 primer, 2 μL 25 mmol/L MgCl_2 , 1 μL $10 \times$ RT buffer, 1 μL dNTP mixture (each 10 mmol/L), 0.25 μL RNase inhibitor, 1 μL RNA, and 3.75 μL dH_2O . Conditions for RT were: 30°C for 10 min, 42°C for 25 min, 99°C for 5 min, and 5°C for 5 min. PCR was performed in 50 μL reactions containing 2.5 ng cDNA, 1 μL each primer pair, and 25 μL Premix *Taq* in the Takara RNA PCR kit. PCR was carried out in a T-gradient Biometra PCR thermal cycler (Montreal Biotech Inc., Kirkland, Quebec, Canada) to determine the annealing temperature for each paired primers. The following AFP primer pairs were used: 5'-GCTGAACCCAGAG-TACTGCAC-3' (forward), and 5'-GACACGTCGTAG-ATGAACGTG-3' (reverse). Amplification reactions were carried out for 30 cycles at 94°C for 30 s, 58.4°C for 30 s, and at 72°C for 1 min.

The amplified products were 443 bp and analyzed on 1% agarose gels and visualized by ethidium bromide staining. Omitting RT, cDNA or DNA polymerase were adopted in the controls, and showed no reaction bands. The data were normalized by actin.

Protein expression of AFP

The tissues were homogenized in a sample buffer containing 50 mmol/L Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 150 mmol/L NaCl, 5 mmol/L EDTA, 10 mmol/L NaF, 1 mmol/L sodium orthovanadate, 1% Triton X-100, 0.5% sodium deoxycholate, 1 mmol/L phenylmethylsulfonyl fluoride and protease inhibitor cocktail. An equal amount of protein samples were separated by 12.5% SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE). After transferred to nitrocellulose membranes and blocked with 5% fat-free milk in Tris-buffered saline plus 0.05% Tween 20 overnight at 4°C , polyclonal antibody for AFP and the corresponding secondary antibody were applied. Blots were visualized with enhanced chemiluminescence reagents and exposed to X-Omat BT film. Signal intensity was quantified using a Bio-Rad image analysis system and the results were normalized to band intensities at $\epsilon 18.5$. The β -actin was used as an internal control and the primary antibody was omitted for negative controls.

Regional and cellular localization of AFP

Double-immunofluorescent staining of AFP and vimentin, a specific marker of mesenchymal cell, were used to determine the regional and cellular localization of AFP in rat colons. Staining was performed according to the standard procedures. Briefly, the sections were deparaffinized in xylene, cleared with graded ethanol in phosphate buffered saline (PBS), and then placed in 10 mmol/L citrate buffer (pH 6.0) for 15 min at 100°C for antigen retrieval. The sections were applied to goat anti-AFP polyclonal antibody overnight at 4°C and then linked with FITC-labeled rabbit anti-goat-IgG. After washing by Tris buffered saline (TBS), mouse anti-vimentin monoclonal antibody and rhodamine-labeled anti-mouse IgG were applied. Sections were placed in Gel Mount aqueous mounting medium with a cover glass and were examined under an Olympus BX51 microscope. Controls were treated by omitting the primary or secondary antibodies. No staining was observed under the negative control conditions. Images were taken at a magnification of $\times 200$. An image analysis system (NYD100) was used for quantitative analysis of cell density (cell number/view field) of the AFP-positive cells in the rat colon. Four sections from four rats in each group were used. AFP-positive cells were counted in five randomly selected view fields per section at a magnification of $\times 400$. At least 20 fields in each group were analyzed.

Statistical analysis

All experiments were done in triplicate. The experimental data was analyzed using PDQuest 7.0 software (Bio-Rad Laboratories, Hercules, CA, USA) and one-way analysis of variance and paired *t* test were used. Data were presented as mean \pm SD. $P < 0.05$ was considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Morphology

Injecting corticosterone into the suckling animals for 1, 2, and 3 d showed no effect on the animal's intestinal and body weights (data not shown). The crypt depth and villous height after corticosterone treatment were higher in the colon of 8- and 10-d-old rats with hypercorticoidism than in the control animals and did not influence those in the 14-d-old rats with hypercorticoidism (Table 1).

Expression of AFP

The serum AFP levels in the rats were near 18 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ in all measured rats and had no difference between hypercorticoidism and control animals (data not shown). In this study, we analyzed the effect of corticosterone on the level of AFP mRNA by RT-PCR. The AFP mRNA concentration increased significantly after corticosterone treatment, by 2.5-folds in the 8-d-old and 2.5-folds in the 10-d-old rats compared with those in the control animals (Figure 1). The transcriptional regulation of AFP expres-

Table 1 Morphological changes in suckling rat colon treated with corticosterone acetate

	Villous height (μm)			Crypt depth (μm)		
	8 d	10 d	14 d	8 d	10 d	14 d
Controls	124.6 ± 41.4	165.9 ± 34.4	254.3 ± 57.7	26.9 ± 10.3	40.4 ± 14.7	53.0 ± 23.5
CA	151.1 ± 35.1 ^a	196.9 ± 29.6 ^a	248.5 ± 42.3	39.1 ± 5.7 ^a	50.3 ± 13.6 ^a	60.5 ± 15.6

^a*P* < 0.05 vs control. CA: Corticosterone acetate.

Table 2 Changes in number of α-fetoprotein-positive cells in suckling rat colon treated with corticosterone acetate (numbers/view field, mean ± SD, n = 20)

	8 d	10 d	14 d
Controls	21.6 ± 4.7	14.1 ± 4.3	12.3 ± 5.2
CA	38.2 ± 5.2 ^a	23.8 ± 2.5 ^a	11.5 ± 2.3

^a*P* < 0.05 vs control. CA: Corticosterone acetate.

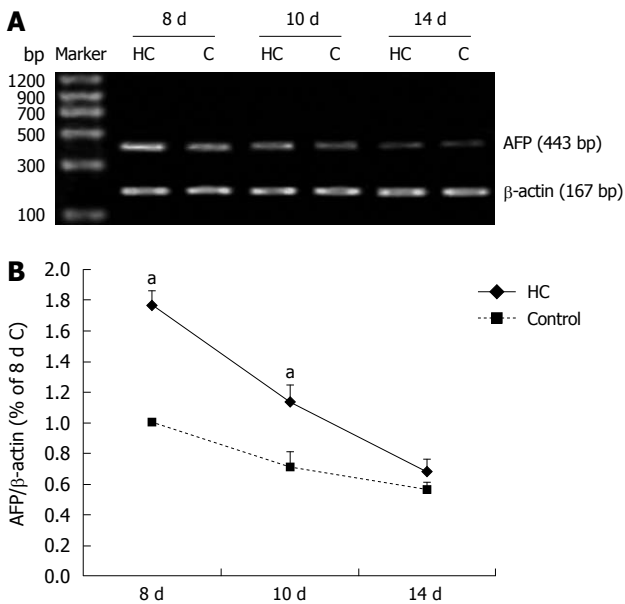


Figure 1 Expression of α-fetoprotein mRNA by reverse transcriptase polymerase chain reaction analysis in colons of suckling rats treated with or without hydrocortisone. Molecular weight markers are indicated on the left. A: The α-fetoprotein (AFP) mRNA levels in colons of hydrocortisone-treated animals were higher than in controls of 8- and 10-d-old rats; B: Results are indicated in percentage above the β-actin value and are representative of three independent experiments. ^a*P* < 0.05 vs controls; C: Pups received saline; HC: Pups received hydrocortisone.

sion of corticosterone was confirmed by the Western blotting analysis (Figure 2).

Regional and cellular localization of AFP

The AFP positive cells were scattered on the epithelium in either corticosterone treated or untreated rats. The cell density of AFP-positive cells was higher in 8- and 10-d-old corticosterone-treated rats than in control animals (Table 2). Double-immunofluorescent staining for the vimentin and AFP showed that there was complete overlap between the AFP-positive cells and the antibody staining for vimentin in all the tested animals (Figure 3).

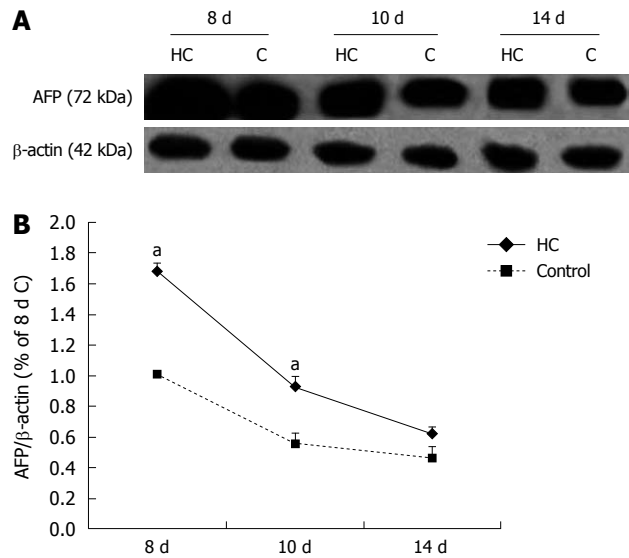


Figure 2 Expression of α-fetoprotein protein by Western blotting analysis in colons of suckling rats treated with or without hydrocortisone as indicated in lanes, respectively. Western blotting analysis using α-fetoprotein (AFP) (C-19), revealed a 72 kDa isoform. A: AFP levels in colons of hydrocortisone-treated animals were higher than in controls of 8- and 10-d-old rats; B: Results are indicated in percentage above the β-actin value and are representative of three independent experiments. ^a*P* < 0.05 vs controls; C: Pups received saline; HC: Pups received hydrocortisone.

Effect of mifepristone

The effect of increased crypt depth and villous height in the colon of 8-d-old rats with hypercorticism was blocked by mifepristone (Figure 4). The increased expression of AFP was also inhibited in the rats treated with mifepristone (Figure 5).

DISCUSSION

Although rodent colon may differ from human colon in the breadth of its responses to GCs, it is nevertheless a useful model to address issues related to morphological maturation, since the development of gastrointestinal functions is similar in all mammals. The aim of this study was to assess the role of exogenous GCs in the maturation of the colon. Accordingly, we used the rats in the first postnatal week whose circulating concentrations of natural GCs were very low (< 0.5 μg/mL)^[18].

Exogenous administration of GCs causes precocious maturation of the intestine. In this study, GCs did result in an increase in villous height and crypt depth of the colon (Table 1) in 8- and 10-d-old rats compared with the age-matched controls. This effect was completely blocked

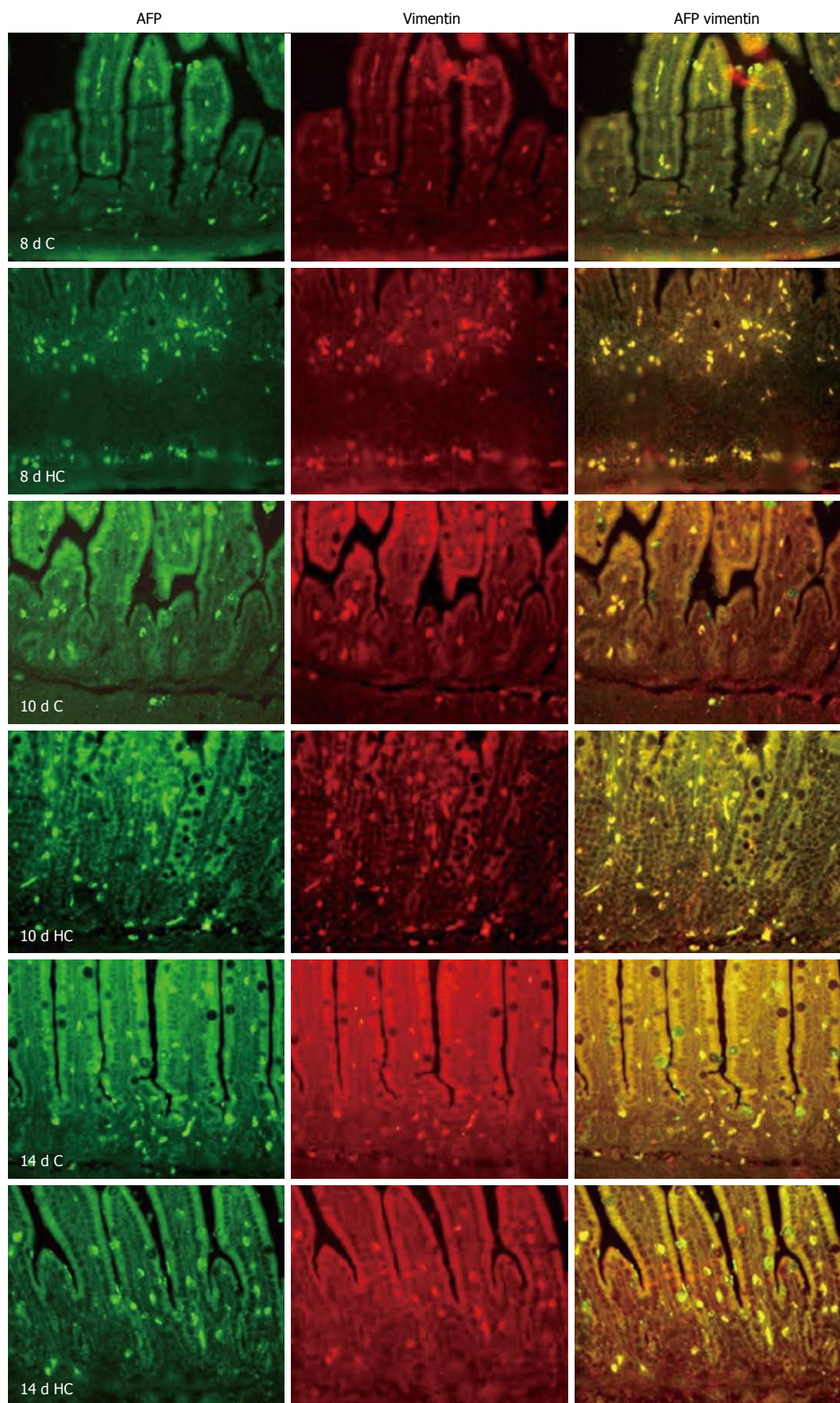


Figure 3 Immunofluorescence localization of α -fetoprotein and vimentin in the suckling rats treated with or without hydrocortisone. Labeling by the α -fetoprotein (AFP) antibody was detected with a fluorescein isothiocyanate (green) labeled secondary antibody. Labeling of vimentin was detected with a rhodamine-(red)-labeled secondary antibody on the same section. The overlap of AFP (green) and vimentin (red) labeling displayed orange color. Double-staining revealed complete colocalization of AFP and vimentin in the same cells of rat colons treated with or without hydrocortisone. All of the primary magnifications are $\times 200$.

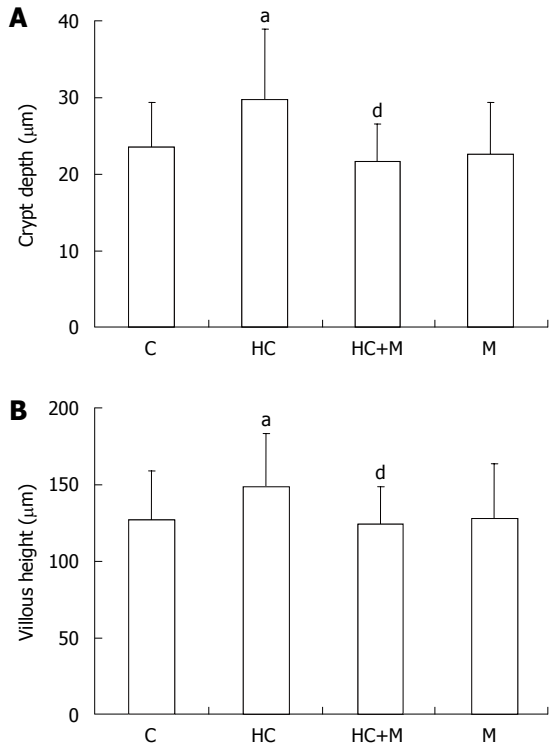


Figure 4 Morphological changes in colons of suckling rats treated with or without hydrocortisone, hydrocortisone + mifepristone and mifepristone alone. Villous height (A) and crypt depth (B) were determined. Each data point (\pm SD; bars) is the mean of four independent trials. C: Pups received saline; HC: Pups received hydrocortisone; HC+M: Pups treated with both hydrocortisone and mifepristone; M: Pups treated with mifepristone only. ^a $P < 0.05$ vs control animals; ^d $P < 0.01$ vs hydrocortisone-treated animals.

by the mifepristone, a glucocorticoid cytoplasm receptor antagonist (Figure 4). It is possible that GCs had a precocious effect on the development of rat colon in the first postnatal week, and in the rat small intestine as well^[19,20].

In contrast, the GCs had no effect on the colon in 14-d-old rats. It has been suggested that immature gastrointestinal tract seems to have more sensitive responsiveness to the regulation of GCs^[21]. It is possible that prepartum cellular differentiation progresses until day 10 in rats after birth^[22]. On the other hand, cytoplasm receptors of GCs are activated after the binding of GCs that allows their translocation to the nucleus. Of note is the pattern of ontogeny changes in the concentration of GCs receptors in the small intestine as cytoplasm GCs receptors are present in the intestine at all ages, but at higher concentrations during the two postnatal weeks than in older rats^[23]. Moreover, GCs receptors themselves have been shown to down-regulate by GCs through GCs enhanced expression of a factor (repressor), which binds the regulatory sequence in the GCs receptor gene promoter^[24]. This might serve as a negative feedback control in the GCs response systems under developmental conditions. In 14-d-old rats, the plasma corticosterone of GCs was raised to 5 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ ^[18], and a loss of responsiveness to GCs for colon development might occur in these rats. No effect of exogenous GCs administration could be also explained by a fall in GCs re-

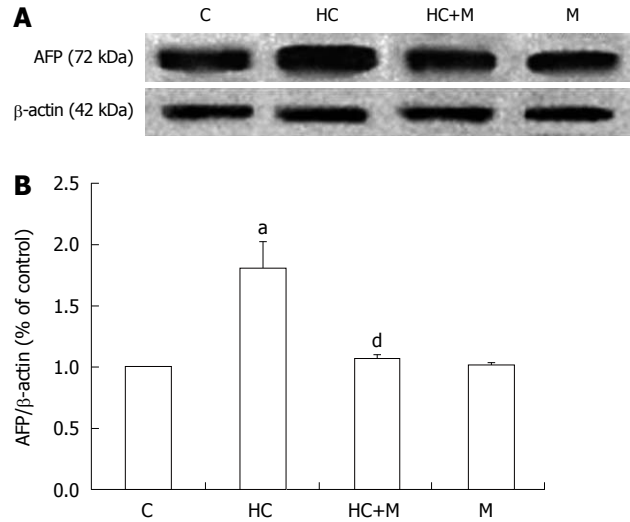


Figure 5 α -fetoprotein expressions in 8-d-old rat colons treated with or without hydrocortisone, hydrocortisone + mifepristone and mifepristone alone. α -fetoprotein (AFP) expression was determined by the Western blotting using AFP polyclonal antibody (A), and results indicated are in percentage above the β -actin value and are representative of three independent experiments (B). Each data point (\pm SD; bars) is the mean of four independent trials. C: Pups received saline; HC: Pups received hydrocortisone; HC+M: Pups treated with both hydrocortisone and mifepristone; M: Pups treated with mifepristone only. ^a $P < 0.05$ vs control animals; ^d $P < 0.01$ vs hydrocortisone-treated animals.

ceptors in 14-d-old rats with a natural rise in corticosterone level, although this was not tested in this study.

AFP is known to be associated with the successful completion of term pregnancies in mammals and even minute amounts of AFP may still be necessary during human pregnancy^[25]. The capability of both up and down modulation of growth and differentiation as a dose-dependent function of AFP has been demonstrated in a multitude of cell types, including placental, ovarian, uterine, and lymphoid, epidermal, endothelial, testicular, breast, and liver^[26-30]. In our previous studies, we indicated that AFP was expressed and produced in mesenchymal cells, which might act as a potent paracrine regulator of colonic cell proliferation and organ maturation^[10]. In this study, exogenous administration of GCs demonstrated an increased expression of AFP, this effect was also inhibited by mifepristone (Figures 2 and 3). Double-immunofluorescent staining for the vimentin, a mesenchymal cell marker, and AFP showed that the AFP was localized in the mesenchymal cells both in GCs-treated and control colons, similar to our previous study^[10].

In present study, the AFP levels in the rat serum were near 18 $\mu\text{mol}/\text{L}$ in all measured rats and had no difference between hypercorticoidism and control animals (data not shown). High cortisone concentration in serum prompts the acceleration of colonic ontogenesis, and is not accompanied by an increased level of serial AFP. In the current study, we did observe an increased expression of AFP in both RNA and protein levels in the GCs-treated premature colon of rats. Therefore, mesenchymal cell-derived AFP acted as a potent paracrine regulator in rat developmental colon.

The effect of GCs may require interactions with another tissue or cell type, such as mesenchyme^[7]. The epithelial-mesenchymal interactions play an essential role in the control of gastrointestinal epithelial growth and differentiation not only in fetal stages, but also in adults^[31,32]. There is no report that GCs could regulate the growth of colonic mucosa directly. Our *in vitro* study also showed a negative result for GCs stimulating the proliferation of colonic epidermis (data not shown). The exogenous GCs were blocked, and the effect of accelerating maturation and the increased expression of AFP were also inhibited. Therefore, mesenchymal cell-derived AFP appears to be responsible, in part, in mediating the effects of GCs on developmental colon. Our present study may help us discern whether the epithelial-mesenchymal interactions and the effect of GCs enhance intestinal maturation in the gastrointestinal tract.

The involvement of GCs in AFP expression in the gut still remains an open question. Studies are now in progress in our laboratory using animal and tissue culture models to test it.

In summary, our present study for the first time demonstrated that GCs promote the development of rat colon. AFP appears to be responsible, in part, in mediating the effects of GCs on developmental colon. The exact function of AFP in rat colon development remains to be determined.

COMMENTS

Background

Glucocorticoids (GCs) are considered to play an important role in the maturation of the gastrointestinal (GI) tract. However, the mechanism of GCs on GI system development has not been fully elucidated.

Research frontiers

Although rodent colon may differ from human colon in the breadth of its responses to GCs, it is nevertheless a useful model to address issues related to morphological maturation, since the development of gastrointestinal functions is similar in all mammals. This study assessed the role of exogenous GCs in the maturation of the colon in rats.

Innovations and breakthroughs

This study for the first time demonstrated that GCs promote the development of rat colon. α -fetoprotein (AFP) appears to be responsible, in part, in mediating the effects of GCs on developmental colon. The exact function of AFP in rat colon development remains to be determined.

Applications

This animal model is a useful tool for the study of mechanism of gastrointestinal mucosal proliferation and differentiation *in vivo*.

Terminology

Corticosterone acetate is a chemical compound of GCs. Mammalian AFP is a single-chain glycoprotein with a molecular mass ranging from 66 to 72 kDa and 3%-5% carbohydrate (glycan) content.

Peer review

This is an excellent study.

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Is hyperhomocysteinemia relevant in patients with celiac disease?

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RESULTS: Hyperhomocysteinemia was evident in 32 patients (19.3%), although most of them had moderate levels (mean value 25 mcg/ml; range 15-30). Only one patient had a history of myocardial infarction (heterozygosis for N5-N10-metil tetrahydrofolate reductase mutation).

CONCLUSION: The systematic assessment of hyperhomocysteinemia seems, at present, unjustified in CD patients.

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Key words: Celiac disease; Endoscopy; Histology; Hyperhomocysteinemia

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Abstract

AIM: To investigate whether this might be related to the presence of hyperhomocysteinemia.

METHODS: From January 1998 to December 2008, we evaluated the presence of hyperhomocysteinemia in a series of 165 adult celiac disease (CD) patients (138 females and 27 males, mean age 43 years).

INTRODUCTION

Hyperhomocysteinemia, considered as an important risk factor in venous thrombosis^[1-3], has a prevalence in the general population of 5%-7%^[4], and causes damage of the vascular endothelium by disrupting the release of nitric oxide, an important vasodilator factor^[5], followed by

platelet activation and thrombus formation^[4].

Celiac disease (CD) is a gluten-sensitive enteropathy due to intolerance to dietary wheat gliadin and related proteins in genetically predisposed individuals^[6]. The malabsorption of folates and vitamins (the deficiency of which may be a cause of hyperhomocysteinemia) is frequent in CD patients, either in the classic or oligosymptomatic type^[7], and several cases of thrombosis have been reported in patients with CD before establishing a diagnosis of gluten-related duodenal mucosal damage^[8,9]. Thus, we investigated the presence of hyperhomocysteinemia in a series of patients with CD, to see whether it might be increased and represent a marker of increased venous thrombosis in these patients.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

In the period January 1998-December 2008, 165 patients with CD (27 men, 138 women, mean age 43 years) were studied. Inclusion criteria were: positivity for anti-endomysial IgA and anti-transglutaminase IgA antibodies (Eurospital, Trieste, Italy) and duodenal histology suggestive for CD.

Histological assessment

Four samples were obtained by endoscopy forceps from the proximal and distal parts of the duodenum. The biopsies, correctly oriented on acetate cellulose filters (Bio-Optica, Milano, Italy), were fixed in 10% buffered formalin, processed and included in paraffin. After obtaining 5 µm thick sections, these were stained with Hematoxylin-Eosin; some sections were also processed for immunohistochemistry and stained with an anti-CD3 monoclonal antibody (Dako, Denmark) to identify intra-epithelial lymphocytes (IEL). IEL density was expressed as the number of IEL/100 epithelial cells, with a density value of > 25 cells considered as pathological. Histological classification was based on the Marsh-Oberhuber criteria^[10] and a new, recently proposed simpler classification^[11,12] (Table 1).

Laboratory assessment

Serum homocysteinemia, vitamin B12 and folic acid levels were measured in all patients. In case of hyperhomocysteinemia, mutations in N5-N10-metil tetrahydrofolate reductase (MTHFR), cystathionine beta synthetase (CBS) and the prothrombin gene were searched for. DNA was extracted from whole blood collected in tubes containing K3-EDTA using a commercial kit (Genomic DNA Isolation kit, Puregene -Gentra System). DNA analysis for MTHFR gene mutation (C677T) was performed by a PCR-RFLP method, as previously described^[13]. A fragment of 232 base pairs was then amplified by polymerase chain reaction. The fragment was digested by *Hinf* I restriction enzyme, and subsequent electrophoresis on ethidium bromide stained 3% agarose gel was performed.

The concentration of total homocysteine in plasma (K3-EDTA tubes) was determined by high performance

Table 1 The Marsh-Oberhuber classification of duodenal histological lesions in celiac disease, compared to the "simplified classification"^[11,12]

Histologic type	IEL	Glandular crypts	Villi	Simplified
0	Normal (< 25/100 epithelial cells)	Normal	Normal	Normal
1	Increased	Normal	Normal	Grade A
2	Increased	Hyperplastic	Normal	Grade A
3a	Increased	Hyperplastic	Mild atrophy	Grade B1
3b	Increased	Hyperplastic	Moderate atrophy	Grade B1
3c	Increased	Hyperplastic	Severe (total) atrophy	Grade B2

IEL: Intra-epithelial lymphocytes.

liquid chromatography, as previously described^[14]. Basal hyperhomocysteinemia (normal value 5-15 µmol/L) was classified as moderate (16-30 µmol/L), intermediate (31-100 µmol/L) and severe (> 100 µmol/L) according to Hankey *et al*^[15]. In all patients, the presence of any thrombotic episode was also evaluated.

The study was approved by the Institutional Review Board of the Desio Hospital.

RESULTS

Histological findings

Most CD patients (24/32, 75.0%) showed mild to severe villous atrophy, with the latter being present in 41.0% of patients (Table 2).

Laboratory findings

Overall, hyperhomocysteinemia was detected in 32 (19.4%) CD patients (24 women, 8 men); average symptoms' onset was 7 (range 1-40) years. Table 3 shows the serologic findings of these patients. Most patients (29/32, 91.0%) had moderate hyperhomocysteinemia, two (6.0%) intermediate and one (3.0%) severe increase of this value. Mutation of MTHFR was found in 13 (41.0%) patients, 7 homozygotes and 6 heterozygotes; one patient displayed heterozygotic mutation of the prothrombin gene. No CBS mutations were found.

Serum B12 vitamin levels were low in 5 (15.6%) patients and serum folate levels were low in 6 (19.0%) patients. No correlation (Spearman's test) was found between serum homocysteine and age ($r = 0.10$, $P = 0.58$), gender ($r = 0.66$, $P = 0.07$), onset of symptoms ($r = -0.06$, $P = 0.75$), vitamin B12 ($r = -0.26$, $P = 0.14$), folic acid ($r = 0.05$, $P = 0.75$), and histological grading ($r = -0.01$, $P = 0.9$). Moreover, no correlation was also found between histological grading, vitamin B12 ($r = -0.10$, $P = 0.56$) and folic acid ($r = -0.2$, $P = 0.3$) values.

Clinical findings

Concerning vascular pathology, one patient with heterozygosis for MTHFR mutation and moderate hyperhomocysteinemia had myocardial infarction, whereas the single

Table 2 Demographic, histological findings and associated diseases of 32 celiac disease patients with hyperhomocysteinemia

No.	Sex/age (yr)	Histology (Marsh/simplified classification)	Associated diseases
1	F/37	Marsh 2 (Grade A)	IgA deficit
2	F/38	Marsh 3a (Grade B1)	
3	M/34	Marsh 3a (Grade B1)	
4	F/32	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	
5	F/20	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	
6	F/47	Marsh 3b (Grade B1)	
7	F/64	Marsh 1 (Grade A)	
8	F/41	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	Epilepsy
9	F/22	Marsh 2 (Grade A)	IgA deficit
10	F/61	Marsh 3a (Grade B1)	
11	M/44	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	NASH
12	F/35	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	type 1 diabetes
13	F/39	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	
14	F/40	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	
15	F/56	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	PBC
16	F/35	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	
17	F/42	Marsh 2 (Grade A)	
18	M/33	Marsh 3b (Grade B1)	Sarcoidosis
19	F/31	Marsh 3a (Grade B1)	
20	F/42	Marsh 3a (Grade B1)	
21	M/28	Marsh 3a (Grade B1)	
22	F/41	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	
23	F/45	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	
24	F/21	Marsh 3a (Grade B1)	
25	F/29	Marsh 3b (Grade B1)	
26	F/55	Marsh 3a (Grade B1)	Osteoporosis
27	F/78	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	
28	M/47	Marsh 3c (Grade B2)	
29	M/63	Marsh 3b (Grade B1)	Psoriasis, myocardial infarction
30	M/18	Marsh 3a (Grade B1)	
31	M/40	Marsh 1 (Grade A)	
32	F/32	Marsh 3a (Grade B1)	Sarcoidosis

IgA: Immunoglobulin A; PBC: Primary biliary cirrhosis.

patient with severe hyperhomocysteinemia underwent coronary angiography for atypical chest pain, but no evidence of vessel pathology was found. No patient in this series had episodes of venous or arterial thrombosis, or any stroke episodes.

DISCUSSION

Our findings show that hyperhomocysteinemia is relatively frequent in patients with CD, being present in about 20% of the patients in our series. Hyperhomocysteinemia might represent a link between undiagnosed gluten-sensitive enteropathy and some of its complications^[16]. Interestingly, these results were similar to those obtained in an overlapping geographic area, which showed the presence of hyperhomocysteinemia in about 20% of newly diagnosed CD patients compared to about 6% of controls^[17].

Hyperhomocysteinemia may be due to genetic factors, with CBS deficiency being considered the most common genetic cause^[5,17], or from acquired folate and vitamin B12 deficiencies^[18,19]. A homozygous deficiency of MTHFR, the vitamin B12 dependent enzyme for the

Table 3 Serologic findings of 32 celiac disease patients with hyperhomocysteinemia

No.	Serum homocysteine (NV 5-15 μ mol/L)	Serum B12 vitamin (NV 190-66 pg/mL)	Serum folic acid (NV 2-14 ng/mL)	Genetic mutation
1	14	365	10	
2	13.5	267	4.7	
3	15	369	6	
4	20	356	1	
5	13	174	5	MTHFR (het)
6	21	311	1.5	
7	15	354	12	
8	44	293	5.2	MTHFR (hom)
9	15	493	6	MTHFR (hom)
10	17	333	1	MTHFR (het)
11	19	383	3	
12	17	198	2	
13	15	400	3	MTHFR (het)
14	27	720	4	MTHFR (hom)
15	13	699	3	MTHFR (hom)
16	21	246	2.4	
17	18	265	5.1	
18	19	282	1	Prothr (het)
19	20	457	3	MTHFR (hom)
20	14	555	0.5	
21	13	291	2	
22	23	280	6	
23	14	329	1	MTHFR (het)
24	17	684	10	
25	19	566	5.6	
26	20	188	2	
27	20.5	154	3	
28	20.5	216	2	MTHFR(het)
29	16	164	13	MTHFR (het)
30	25	555	8	
31	149	150	2	MTHFR (hom)
32	31	385	2	MTHFR (hom)

het: Heterozygosis; hom: Homozygosis; MTHFR: N5-N10-metil tetrahydrofolate reductase.

remethylation of homocysteine to methionine, may cause hyperhomocysteinemia and it has a worse prognosis than CBS deficiency for the absence of an effective therapy^[20]. Moreover, treatment with a gluten-free diet and folic acid in CD patients with MTHFR variants does not consistently improve hyperhomocysteinemia^[21].

Thus, CD (in which malabsorption of folate and vitamin B12 is common^[22]) might lead to increased cardiovascular risks due to an increase of secondary (acquired) hyperhomocysteinemia, further aggravated by the possible presence of genetic abnormalities responsible for hyperhomocysteinemia. However, notwithstanding the relative frequency of hyperhomocysteinemia in our CD patients, this was almost always of moderate entity, with only one patient displaying high levels. Interestingly, the only patient to have a cardiovascular event (myocardial infarction) had relatively low levels of hyperhomocysteinemia and presented heterozygous mutations of MTHFR. No CBS mutations were found in our series. Only one mutation of the prothrombin gene was found, and this is in line with the paucity of reports of such mutations in CD patients^[23].

In conclusion, at present it seems unnecessary to systematically investigate CD for the presence of hyperhomocysteinemia; conversely, a serological screening for CD in patients with hyperhomocysteinemia, cardiovascular events and vitamin deficiency could be considered, especially because adult CD patients may display only a few to no intestinal symptoms^[24,25], and the onset of the disease may rarely be due to a thrombotic event^[26-28].

COMMENTS

Background

Venous thrombosis has been reported in patients with celiac disease (CD). Since this might be related to hyperhomocysteinemia, a risk factor for vascular disease, we investigated the prevalence of hyperhomocysteinemia in a series of adult celiac patients.

Research frontiers

An increased prevalence of hyperhomocysteinemia in CD might lead to increased cardiovascular risk.

Innovations and breakthroughs

To date, most data on this topic originates from single reports, and only one other study investigated systematically celiac patients.

Applications

It appears that, given the low prevalence of hyperhomocysteinemia in celiac patients, it is unnecessary to screen systematically patients; this is useful information in terms of sanitary expenses.

Peer review

The authors evaluated in a cohort of 165 CD patients the presence of hyperhomocysteinemia during a period of time of 10 years. They showed that seems unnecessary to investigate systematically CD for the presence of hyperhomocysteinemia. Their work could contribute to the epidemiologic information of the CD in the Italian population.

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Long-term effects of lamivudine treatment in Japanese chronic hepatitis B patients

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Abstract

AIM: To analyze the association between the emergence of tyrosine-methionine-asparatate-asparatate (YMDD) mutants (reverse transcription; rtM204I/V) and deterioration of liver function during long-term lamivudine treatment of Japanese patients with chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection.

METHODS: The data of 61 consecutive Japanese patients with chronic hepatitis B who underwent continuous lamivudine treatment for more than 24 mo and had a virological response were analyzed. Analysis of YMDD mutants was done by real-time polymerase chain reaction with LightCycler probe hybridization assay for up to 90 mo (mean, 50.8 mo; range, 24-90 mo).

RESULTS: A mixed mutant-type (YMDD + tyrosine-isoleucine-asparatate-asparatate: YIDD or tyrosine-valine-asparatate-asparatate: YVDD) or a mutant-type (YIDD or YVDD) were found in 57.4% of 61 patients at 1 year, 78.7% of 61 patients at 2 years, 79.6% of 49 patients at 3 years, 70.5% of 34 patients at 4 years, 68.4% of 19 patients at 5 years, 57.1% of 14 patients at 6 years, and 33.3% of 6 patients at 7 years. Of the 61 patients, 56 (92%) had mixed mutant- or a mutant-type. Only 5 (8%) had no mutants at each observation point. Virological breakthrough was found in 26 (46.4%) of 56 patients with YMDD mutants, 20 of whom had a hepatitis flare-up: the remaining 30 (53.6%) had neither a virological breakthrough nor a flare-up. All 20 patients who developed a hepatitis flare-up had a biochemical and virological response after adefovir was added to the lamivudine treatment.

CONCLUSION: Our results suggest that it is possible to continue lamivudine treatment, even after the emergence of YMDD mutants, up to the time that the patients develop a hepatitis flare-up.

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Key words: Tyrosine-methionine-asparatate-asparatate mutant; Hepatitis B virus; Lamivudine; Drug resistance

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INTRODUCTION

Chronic hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection affects more than 350 million people worldwide, with 75% living in the Asia-Pacific region^[1,2]. Although Japan was historically endemic for HBV infection, our previous studies have shown that the prevalence of hepatitis B surface antigen (HBsAg) carriage in Okinawa, Japan markedly decreased from 12.4% in 1970 to 4.2% in 1996^[3,4]. However, chronic HBV infection continues to be a major health problem because it leads to the development of liver cirrhosis, hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC), and raises the risk of hepatic disease-related death. Because HBV replication is associated with liver injury, therapy for patients with chronic HBV infection aims to stop or reduce disease progression and to prevent the development of hepatic decompensation through the sustained suppression of HBV replication^[5]. For this purpose, interferon or oral antiviral nucleos(t)ide analogues, such as lamivudine, adefovir, entecavir, telbivudine and tenofovir have been approved for the treatment of patients with chronic HBV infection. Previous studies have shown that HBV genotype influences liver disease progression^[6,7], and our epidemiological study of the Japanese HBV genotype distribution showed that most patients were infected with genotype C^[8]. Because genotype C has been reported to be associated with severe liver damage and to be resistant to non-pegylated interferon^[8-10], Japanese patients with chronic hepatitis B are often given nucleos(t)ide analog treatment. Nucleos(t)ide analogs have fast and potent inhibitory effects on HBV polymerase and reverse transcriptase activity, are safe and easy to use, and can induce HBV DNA suppression, alanine aminotransferase (ALT) normalization and improvement of liver histology^[11-14].

Lamivudine is the first oral nucleoside analogue to be approved for the treatment of chronic hepatitis B patients, and it has been shown to suppress HBV replication by interfering with HBV DNA polymerase and disease activity, to reduce the incidence of HCC, and to improve survival^[15,16]. A study that included a large number of Japanese chronic hepatitis B patients showed lamivudine to have good virological and biochemical efficacy in long-term treatment^[17].

Although there is much evidence supporting the effectiveness of lamivudine for chronic hepatitis B patients, the clinical benefit of lamivudine treatment has been eroded, in the case of long-term treatment, by the emergence of lamivudine-resistant HBV mutants with mutation of the reverse transcriptase domain of the polymerase gene. The emergence of lamivudine-resistant mutants is mainly based on point mutation from methionine to valine/isoleucine at rt204 (rt204V/I) in the tyrosine-methionine-aspartate-aspartate (YMDD) motif^[18]. The emergence of lamivudine-resistant HBV has been linked to virological breakthrough, sometimes followed by biochemical breakthrough, and to flare-ups of hepatitis^[19].

The detection of YMDD mutants has mainly been done by methods such as direct DNA sequencing or hybridization^[20,21], but these methods are labor-intensive

and time-consuming. Fluorometric real-time polymerase chain reaction (PCR) with the LightCycler probe hybridization assay is reported to be an easy, rapid and accurate method for the detection of YMDD mutants^[22,23]. Few studies have sequentially assessed the emergence of YMDD mutants during long-term lamivudine treatment in Japan. The aim of the present study was to analyze the association between the emergence of YMDD mutants and deterioration of liver function during long-term lamivudine treatment of Japanese chronic hepatitis B patients by use of the LightCycler probe hybridization assay.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

The study included 61 consecutive Japanese patients with chronic hepatitis B who underwent continuous lamivudine treatment for more than 24 mo, and had a virological response (defined as a decline of more than 4.0 log copies/mL in HBV DNA level during treatment). The patients started lamivudine treatment between February 2001 and May 2007 at the Department of General Internal Medicine, Kyushu-University Hospital in Fukuoka, Japan. Before the start of lamivudine treatment, all patients had HBsAg and detectable levels of HBV DNA by PCR assay. The diagnosis of chronic hepatitis and cirrhosis was based on a liver biopsy for most patients, but if unavailable it was based on clinical laboratory and ultrasonography data. None of the patients tested positive for antibody to hepatitis C virus or human immunodeficiency virus type 1, nor was there evidence of other forms of liver diseases, such as alcoholic liver disease, drug-induced liver disease, or autoimmune hepatitis.

All patients received lamivudine (Zeffix, Glaxo Smith Kline, UK) in a single oral daily dose of 100 mg. Observation was for up to 90 mo (mean, 50.8 mo; range, 24-90 mo) after the start of lamivudine administration, and the emergence of YMDD mutants during treatment was identified using the LightCycler probe hybridization assay. Serum ALT, hepatitis B e antigen (HBeAg), anti-HBe, and HBV DNA were measured every 1-2 mo. Sera were tested for mutation of the HBV polymerase gene every 6-12 mo during treatment.

Definitions of "virological breakthrough" and "flare-up" of hepatitis

Virological breakthrough was defined as an increase in serum HBV DNA of more than 1 log copies/mL from the nadir of the initial response^[19]. A flare-up of hepatitis was defined as an increase in ALT level to more than 3 times the upper limit of normal.

Routine laboratory tests and viral markers

Biochemical tests were performed using standard procedures before and at least once monthly during treatment. HBsAg, HBeAg and anti-HBe were determined by a chemiluminescence enzyme immunoassay (Abbott Japan Co., Tokyo, Japan). HBV genotype analysis was performed by

a previously reported method^[24]. Serum HBV DNA level was measured by a PCR-based method (Roche Amplicor HBV Monitor; Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany). The detection range of the assay was between 2.6 (corresponding to 400 copies/mL) and 8.7 log copies/mL.

Serum samples and extraction of HBV DNA

Serum samples were obtained from all patients before and during lamivudine treatment and stored at -20°C until use. HBV DNA was extracted from serum using the QIAamp DNA mini kit (Qiagen Ltd., Crawley, United Kingdom) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Monitoring the emergence of lamivudine-resistant mutants by the LightCycler probe hybridization assay

Lamivudine-resistant mutation was detected by rapid PCR amplification across the YMDD-encoding gene locus and analysis of the hybridization kinetics of an integrated probe to infer its sequence was done using the LightCycler (Roche Diagnostics) according to the method reported by Whalley *et al.*^[22].

Briefly, HBV DNA was extracted from serum, and a 399 bp region of the polymerase gene was amplified by hemi-nested PCR assay. The amplified PCR product was denatured and hybridized to the Bi-probe system, which uses Cy5-labeled probes in conjunction with SYBR Green I (Bio/Gene, Kimbolton, United Kingdom). The LightCycler was used for amplification of PCR clones and to determine the melting characteristics of the probe-amplification hybrid. A melting curve analysis of the data was performed using the LightCycler analysis software v3.5 (Roche Diagnostics). Melting curves were converted to melting peaks by plotting the negative derivative of fluorescence with respect to temperature (-dF/dT). This analysis gave the melting temperature (T_m) at which 50% of the hybridizing probe was annealed to the PCR product. Because the presence of a single-base mismatch results in a shift in the melting temperature to a temperature lower than that for the probe-specific sequence, analysis of the probe melting curves allows differentiation of the wild-type YMDD from the YMDD mutants including YIDD, YVDD, and the YMDD/YIDD and YMDD/YVDD mixed types. The detection limit of this assay was about 10%-20% of the total virus pool (data not shown).

Statistical analysis

The distribution of continuous variables was analyzed by the Mann-Whitney *U* test. Differences in proportions were tested by Fisher's exact test. A two-tailed *P* value of less than 0.05 was considered statistically significant. Statistical analysis was performed with the SPSS statistical package (version 11.0, SPSS, Inc., Chicago, IL, USA).

RESULTS

Baseline characteristics

Of the 61 patients, 45 were male with a median age of

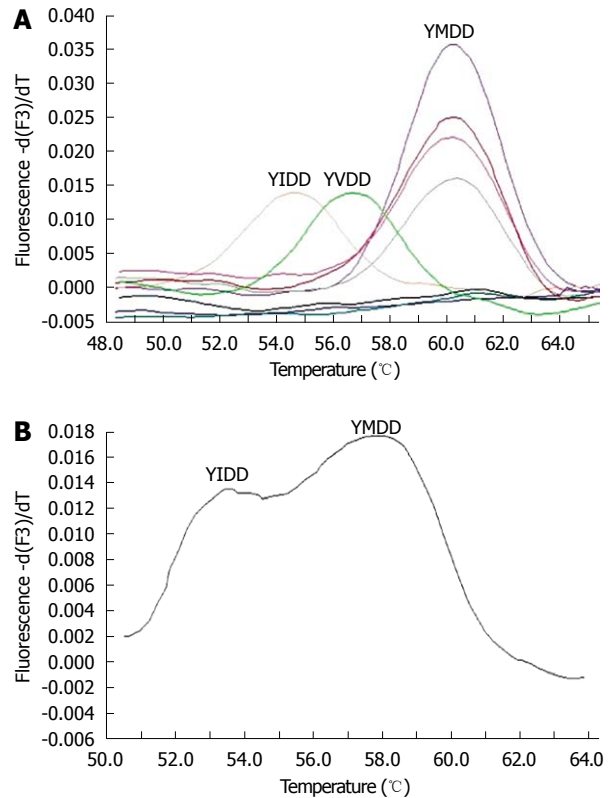


Figure 1 Melting curve analysis using the LightCycler probe hybridization assay. The melting curves were converted to melting peaks by plotting the negative derivative of fluorescence with respect to temperature [-d(F3)/dT]. The melting temperature (T_m) for each of the YMDD mutants is indicated with a vertical line. A: Representative results for differentiating HBV YMDD mutants. YMDD, YVDD and YIDD mutants showed distinct T_m values; B: The shoulder curve indicated the mixed mutant-type. Representative results show YMDD + YIDD mutants.

50 years (range, 28-65 years) and 16 female with a median age of 49 years (range, 38-69 years). All patients were infected with genotype C, 36 (59%) were negative for HBeAg, 15 (25%) were cirrhotic, and the median HBV DNA level was 6.5 log copies/mL (range, 2.7-8.7 log copies/mL).

Melting curve analysis for the detection of HBV YMDD mutants

YMDD mutants were analyzed by melting curve analysis. The melting peaks of the wild-type and mutant HBV strains were typically observed at different temperatures, as shown in Figure 1A. The melting temperatures of the YIDD and YVDD mutants were approximately 9°C and 2.5°C lower than that of the wild-type, respectively. Because the melting curve showed a double peak in the case of YIDD or YVDD mutant mixed with the wild-type YMDD, as shown in Figure 1B, this type of melting curve was considered to be the mixed mutant-type.

Seven-year change in the wild, mixed mutant and mutant-types

The mixed mutant- or mutant-type was found in 57.4% of 61 patients at 1 year, 78.7% of 61 patients at 2 years,

Table 1 Comparison of patients with and without the emergence of YMDD mutants during treatment, median (range)

Characteristics	Mutant- or mixed mutant-type (n = 56)	Not detected or wild-type (n = 5)	P-value
No. of men (%)	42 (75.0)	3 (80.0)	NS
Age (yr)	50 (28-69)	52 (34-55)	NS
ALT level (U/L)	79 (15-1593)	63 (44-108)	NS
Albumin (g/dL)	4.1 (2.9-5.0)	4.3 (4.0-4.3)	NS
Platelet count (× 10 ⁴ /mL)	13.1 (3.3-43.3)	17.8 (15.2-26.0)	NS
HBeAg positivity (%)	23 (41.1)	2 (40.0)	NS
HBV-DNA level (log copies/mL)	6.5 (2.7-8.7)	7.0 (5.4-8.7)	NS
Cirrhosis (%)	22 (39.3)	1 (20.0)	NS
History of HCC (%)	8 (14.3)	1 (20.0)	NS
Virological breakthrough (%)	26 (46.4)	0	< 0.0001
Patients with hepatitis flare-ups (%)	20 (35.7)	0	< 0.0001

Between group comparison was done of whether or not YMDD mutant was detected at each observation point. ALT: Alanine aminotransferase; HBeAg: Hepatitis B e antigen; HBV: Hepatitis B virus; HCC: Hepatocellular carcinoma; NS: Not significant.

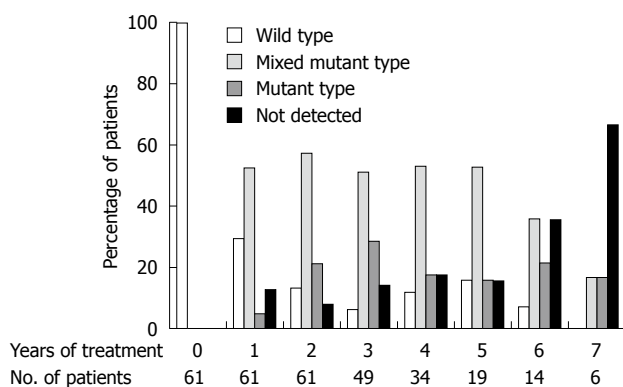


Figure 2 Change in the proportion of YMDD wild, mixed mutant, and mutant-types during lamivudine treatment.

79.6% of 49 patients at 3 years, 70.5% of 34 patients at 4 years, 68.4% of 19 patients at 5 years, 57.1% of 14 patients at 6 years, 33.3% of 6 patients at 7 years, as shown in Figure 2.

Comparison of patients with and without the emergence of YMDD mutants during treatment

Of the 61 patients, 56 (92%) had the mixed mutant- or mutant-type: Only 5 (8%) had none of the tested mutations during the observation period. Virological breakthrough or a flare-up of hepatitis was observed in 26 (46.4%) and 20 (35.7%), respectively, of the 56 patients with YMDD mutants. None of the 5 patients without YMDD mutants had virological breakthrough or a flare-up of hepatitis. Virological breakthrough or a flare-up of hepatitis was experienced significantly more often by patients with than without YMDD mutants ($P < 0.0001$).

No significant differences in sex, age, pretreatment ALT level, serum albumin, platelet count, frequency of

Table 2 Comparison of the emergence of YMDD mutants during treatment by hepatitis B e antigen status of patients, median (range)

Characteristics	HBeAg negative (n = 36)	HBeAg positive (n = 25)	P-value
No. of men (%)	28 (78)	17 (68)	NS
Age (yr)	50 (29-69)	50 (28-60)	NS
HBV DNA level (log copies/mL)	5.8 (2.7-7.6)	7.6 (4.1-8.7)	< 0.0001
Patients with YMDD mutants (%)	33 (92)	23 (92)	NS
Virological breakthrough (%)	12 (33)	14 (56)	NS
Patients with flare-ups of hepatitis (%)	9 (25)	11 (44)	NS

HBeAg: Hepatitis B e antigen; HBV: Hepatitis B virus; NS: Not significant.

HBeAg positivity, pretreatment HBV DNA level, presence of cirrhosis, or history of HCC were observed between these groups. Of the 56 patients with YMDD mutants, 30 (53.6%) had no virological breakthrough. However, no significant differences in sex, age, pretreatment ALT level, serum albumin, platelet count, frequency of HBeAg positivity, pretreatment HBV DNA level, presence of cirrhosis, or history of HCC were observed for the patients with mutants, with or without virological breakthrough (data not shown) (Table 1).

Of the 61 patients, 36 (59%) were HBeAg negative. Although about 90% of patients with or without HBeAg had YMDD mutants, HBeAg negative patients had a tendency to have a lower frequency of virological breakthrough and hepatitis flare-ups than HBeAg positive patients. However, no significant between group differences were found in sex, age, number of patients with YMDD mutants, the frequency of virological breakthrough and hepatitis flare-ups; only pretreatment HBV DNA level showed a significant difference (Table 2).

Characteristics of the patients with hepatitis flare-up

Of the 61 patients, a flare-up of hepatitis was experienced by 20 (32.8%), 15 (75%) males, 5 (25%) females, median age 56 years (range, 44-65 years), 11 (55%) with cirrhosis, and 14 (70%) with HBeAg. All patients who developed flare-ups of hepatitis following an increase in the HBV DNA level had YMDD mutation. The peak HBV DNA level (median 6.7 log copies/mL; range, 5.7-8.0 log copies/mL) at the time of a flare-up was significantly lower than at pretreatment (median 7.6 log copies/mL; range, 6.0-8.7 log copies/mL) ($P < 0.05$) (Table 3).

Clinical course of patients with hepatitis flare-up

All 20 patients who had a flare-up were prescribed 10 mg of adefovir dipivoxil daily, in addition to lamivudine treatment, and all had a biochemical and virological response.

DISCUSSION

Early detection and monitoring of HBV genotypic resis-

Table 3 Characteristics of the patients with flare-ups of hepatitis

Patient	Age (yr)	Sex	Cirrhosis	HBeAg	Change of HBV DNA level after treatment (log copies/mL)			Mutant type
					Pre-treatment	Nadir	Virological breakthrough with hepatitis flare-ups	
1	54	F	+	+	8.7	4.7	7.6	YIDD/YVDD
2	56	M	+	+	8.1	4.1	7.9	Mixed
3	59	M	+	-	6.6	< 2.6	6.8	YIDD
4	60	M	+	+	7.9	< 2.6	8.0	Mixed
5	65	M	+	+	6.5	< 2.6	6.7	Mixed
6	49	M	+	+	7.9	3.9	7.0	YIDD
7	58	M	-	+	8.7	3.9	7.2	YVDD
8	51	M	-	+	7.8	3.8	7.6	YIDD/YVDD
9	58	M	-	+	8.7	4.3	7.9	Mixed
10	61	M	+	-	6.0	< 2.6	6.6	Mixed
11	51	F	-	+	7.2	< 2.6	5.9	YIDD
12	62	F	-	+	7.7	< 2.6	6.6	Mixed
13	44	M	+	+	6.7	< 2.6	5.9	YVDD
14	56	M	-	+	8.7	5.0	7.0	YVDD
15	50	F	-	+	7.6	5.6	6.2	YIDD
16	47	M	+	+	7.9	3.9	6.4	YIDD
17	59	F	+	-	6.9	< 2.6	6.1	YVDD
18	45	M	-	-	6.9	< 2.6	6.1	Mixed
19	61	M	-	-	6.7	< 2.6	5.9	Mixed
20	56	M	+	-	6.6	< 2.6	5.7	YVDD

HBV: Hepatitis B virus; HBeAg: Hepatitis B e antigen.

tance in patients with chronic hepatitis B using nucleoside analogues allows clinicians to avoid virological breakthroughs followed by flare-ups of hepatitis. In this retrospective study, we found that the LightCycler probe hybridization assay was useful for monitoring the emergence of YMDD mutants. Furthermore, our results provide important data on the YMDD mutation of Japanese chronic hepatitis B patients undergoing long-term lamivudine treatment.

Continuous lamivudine treatment is associated with an increased percentage of patients with YMDD mutants. Lamivudine-genotypic resistance was reported in 24% of patients after 1 year of treatment, 41% after 2 years, 53% after 3 years and 70% after 4 years by PCR using a restriction fragment-length polymorphism assay (PCR-RFLP)^[25]. Similarly, the present study showed an increased percentage of patients with YMDD mutants within 3 years of treatment, although the percentage was higher than that of the previous report, probably a reflection of different sensitivities of the assay used for the detection of YMDD mutants. Direct DNA sequencing, PCR-RFLP, and reverse hybridization line probe assay are common methods of detecting lamivudine-genotypic resistance^[20]. The detection limits of these assays are about 20%, 5%, and down to 10% of the total viral pool, respectively^[21]. These methods are labor-intensive, time-consuming, and have the risk of contamination because they require a separate set of endonuclease reactions for each of the mutants, or a specific probe for each mutant. The LightCycler probe hybridization assay can detect YMDD mutants within 1 h and the risk of carryover contamination is minimal because PCR is performed in a closed glass capillary. The detection limit of this assay is about 10%-20% of the to-

tal virus pool, and minor subpopulations can be detected (those constituting about 20% of the total population). Our results may more accurately reflect the actual rates of YMDD mutants than were found in previous reports. Because of the quasi-species nature of HBV, YMDD mutants have been detected in patients with chronic hepatitis B who never received lamivudine treatment using a more sensitive method than our method^[26-28]. Unfortunately, the present study could not determine if preexisting mutants prevailed after the initiation of lamivudine treatment because this assay could not detect YMDD mutants before treatment.

The present study showed that virological breakthrough and flare-ups of hepatitis occurred after the emergence of YMDD mutants, as reported previously^[29]. Therefore, monitoring ALT and HBV DNA levels after the emergence of YMDD mutants is clinically important for the management of patients treated with lamivudine. It has been reported that a short latency to the emergence of YMDD mutants, mixed type YMDD mutant (YIDD + YVDD type), and a low ALT level in patients with YMDD mutants were associated with virological breakthrough or flare-up of hepatitis^[30]. In the present study, 20 (35.4%) of 56 patients with YMDD mutants developed flare-ups after virological breakthrough during the treatment. As reported in previous studies^[17,31], our results also showed that a flare-up of hepatitis was frequently observed in patients with cirrhosis, or HBeAg positive patients, which may be related to the more active liver disease of HBeAg positive patients. However, our results showed no virological breakthrough by about half of our patients with YMDD mutants during long-term lamivudine treatment. It is important to consider the prognosis

of the patients who continued lamivudine treatment after the emergence of YMDD mutants. It has been reported that there was no benefit for patients who continued lamivudine treatment after the emergence of YMDD mutants compared with patients who discontinued treatment, based on a comparison of the rates of flare-ups of hepatitis, hepatic decompensation, and HBe seroconversion over a 12-mo period^[32]. Another report, however, showed a benefit of long-term lamivudine treatment, for 8 years, in Asian patients with YMDD mutants without advanced disease, who had a lower risk of development of cirrhosis and HCC, a greater reduction of HBV DNA level, and a similar rate of flare-ups of hepatitis compared with untreated patients^[33]. Our data from the present study suggests that it is possible to continue lamivudine treatment even after the emergence of YMDD mutants if clinicians note the above risk factors associated with virological breakthrough or flare-ups of hepatitis.

The present study showed that about half of patients with YMDD mutants did not encounter virological breakthrough during long-term lamivudine treatment. It has previously been shown that YMDD mutants (rtM204V or rtM204I) have preexisting polymorphisms in HBV-infected patients because of the quasi-species nature of HBV in infected individuals, and that these mutants appeared randomly in viral populations, which had a replication disadvantage to the YMDD wild-type in the absence of lamivudine^[34]. A previous study showed that HBV mutants with mutations in the YMDD motif in patients before treatment would not be selected by lamivudine or induce breakthrough hepatitis^[27]. Furthermore, the rtM204V mutant in domain C frequently accompanies rtL180M mutants in domain B^[26]. *In vitro* studies showed that rtM204I alone had lower replication competency than rtL180M/rtM204V^[35]. These data suggest that the gain of replication capacity of YMDD mutants during lamivudine treatment may be associated with multiple factors, including intrinsic replicative advantages potentially conferred by mutations accumulating outside domain C, the fluctuating environment in which these mutants replicate, and the host immune response.

In the present study, 5 (8%) of 61 patients had no emergence of YMDD mutation during the treatment. Hashimoto *et al.*^[30] reported that factors associated with YMDD mutants not appearing during 5-year lamivudine therapy for patients with chronic HBV infection are HBeAg negativity, lack of cirrhosis, and high γ GTP level. We were not able to confirm their results because there were too few patients free of YMDD mutants to draw a significant conclusion.

Adding adefovir dipivoxil, which is without cross-resistance to lamivudine, is effective for achieving a virological and biochemical response in patients with lamivudine-resistance^[36,37]. The American Association for the study of Liver Disease guidelines on HBV recommend the addition of a second drug in the event of lamivudine resistance^[38,39]. It has been reported for patients with lamivudine resistance that the virological and biochemical re-

sponse rates were similar between a group being switched to adefovir monotherapy and a group for which adefovir was added to lamivudine treatment, but adefovir resistance more frequently occurred in the patients who had combined adefovir and lamivudine treatment^[37,40]. Therefore, the add-on treatment is thought to be superior to switching treatment with regard to the prevention of subsequent multi-drug resistance. The above data supported our result of a biochemical and virological response by all patients who had adefovir added to lamivudine treatment after a flare-up of hepatitis.

In conclusion, no virological breakthrough was observed in about half of the patients with YMDD mutants during long-term lamivudine treatment. Patients who developed flare-ups of hepatitis were successful in achieving a virological and biochemical response by addition of adefovir to lamivudine treatment. These data suggest that it is possible to continue lamivudine treatment even after emergence of YMDD mutants, at least until the patients develop a flare-up of hepatitis.

COMMENTS

Background

Although there is much evidence of the effectiveness of lamivudine in chronic hepatitis B patients, the number of patients with tyrosine-methionine-aspartate-aspartate (YMDD) motif mutation, which is linked to virological breakthrough, sometimes followed by a flare-up of hepatitis, is higher with prolonged lamivudine treatment. There is little information about the association between YMDD mutants and deterioration of liver function during long-term lamivudine treatment.

Research frontiers

The detection of YMDD mutants has mainly been by methods such as direct DNA sequencing, polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-restriction fragment length polymorphism, or reverse hybridization line probe assay, but these methods are labor-intensive, time-consuming, and have the risk of contamination. In this study, the authors demonstrated that fluorometric real-time PCR with the Light-Cycler probe hybridization assay was an easy, rapid and accurate method for the detection of YMDD mutants.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Regardless of hepatitis B e antigen positivity, the present study showed, by use of the LightCycler probe hybridization assay, that about half of the patients with YMDD mutants did not encounter virological breakthrough during long-term lamivudine treatment. Furthermore, all patients who developed flare-ups of hepatitis had a biochemical and virological response after adefovir was added to the lamivudine treatment.

Applications

The results suggest that it is possible to continue lamivudine treatment, even after the emergence of YMDD mutants, up to the time that the patients develop flare-ups of hepatitis.

Peer review

In this study, Murata *et al.* retrospectively analyzed 61 HBV patients for up to 90 mo to find out the association between lamivudine resistance from its emergence with the hepatic deterioration. The positive finding of this study is the indication of continuation of lamivudine therapy in patients of genotype C having YMDD mutation until the stage of hepatic flare-up. The potential of Light Cycler probe hybridization for detection and monitoring of such mutants has also been elucidated. This is an important issue because lamivudine resistance is associated with progressive liver disease.

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Total embolization of the main splenic artery as a supplemental treatment modality for hypersplenism

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Abstract

AIM: To study the safety and feasibility of total embolization of the main splenic artery as a supplemental treatment modality for hypersplenism with thrombocytopenia or leukocytopenia accompanying liver cirrhosis.

METHODS: Fifteen consecutive patients with hypersplenism due to cirrhosis were enrolled in this study from January 2006 to June 2010. All patients underwent total embolization of the main splenic artery. Clinical symptoms, white blood cell (WBC) and platelet (PLT) counts, splenic volume, and complications of the patients were recorded. The patients were followed up for 1 and 6 mo, and 1, 2, 3 years, respectively, after operation.

RESULTS: Total embolization of the main splenic artery was technically successful in all patients. Minor complications occurred in 13 patients after the procedure, but no major complications were found. The WBC and

PLT counts were significantly higher and the residual splenic volume was significantly lower 1 and 6 mo, and 1, 2, 3 years after the procedure than before the procedure ($P < 0.01$). Moreover, the residual splenic volume increased very slowly with the time after embolization. All patients were alive during the follow-up period.

CONCLUSION: Total embolization of the main splenic artery is a safe and feasible procedure and may serve as a supplemental treatment modality for hypersplenism with thrombocytopenia or leukocytopenia accompanying liver cirrhosis.

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Key words: Liver cirrhosis; Hypersplenism; Coil embolization; Splenic artery

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INTRODUCTION

Partial splenic embolization (PSE) is a non-surgical procedure for hypersplenism resulting from hepatic disease and can thus avoid the disadvantages of splenectomy^[1]. It has been shown that PSE can increase peripheral blood cell counts^[2-5]. However, PSE often results in a number of complications, including daily intermittent fever, abdominal pain, nausea, vomiting, postemboliza-

tion syndrome, splenic abscess and rupture, pneumonia, refractory ascites, pleural effusion, and gastrointestinal bleeding^[2-8].

Total embolization of the splenic artery is a safe and effective procedure for splenic artery aneurysms^[9-13]. Moreover, stainless steel spring coils are used to embolize the main branch of splenic artery to increase the platelet (PLT) count before splenectomy^[14]. To date, no report is available on the treatment of hypersplenism with total embolization of the main splenic artery. The present study was to study the safety and feasibility of total embolization of the main splenic artery for hypersplenism with thrombocytopenia or leukocytopenia accompanying liver cirrhosis.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Patients

Fifteen consecutive patients (10 males and 5 females with a mean age of 50.07 ± 8.98 years, ranging 38-60 years) with hypersplenism due to cirrhosis were enrolled in this study from January 2006 to June 2010 and subsequently underwent computed tomography (CT) follow-up at our hospital. The causes of cirrhosis were hepatitis B virus (HBV) infection in 13 patients and hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection in 2 patients. The patients were diagnosed as hypersplenism based on their history, clinical laboratory tests, ultrasonography and CT. The protocol was approved by The Ethics Committee of Fudan University and the patients provided their written informed consent.

The inclusion criteria were those with hypersplenism, HBV/HCV-related active cirrhosis, neutropenia (neutrophil count $\leq 2.0 \times 10^9$ cells/L), thrombocytopenia (PLT count $\leq 50 \times 10^9$ cells/L) or both, and follow-up time > 2 years. Those with severe jaundice [serum total bilirubin (TB) level $\geq 81.4 \mu\text{mol/L}$] or spontaneous bacterial peritonitis were excluded from the study.

Hypersplenism was classified as Child-Pugh class A in 10 patients, class B in 3 patients, and class C in 2 patients. The demographics of these patients are summarized in Table 1.

Endovascular techniques

Metallic coils and gelfoam were used as embolization materials, either alone or in combination. In general, the embolization coils used in this series were standard 0.089-cm (0.035-in.) fibered coils, microcoils (Tornado; Cook Inc., Bloomington, IN, USA).

Embolization was performed in all patients *via* the femoral artery. Selective angiography of the celiac trunk, splenic artery, and superior mesenteric artery was performed *via* the right femoral artery with a 5-Fr diagnostic catheter (Cook). Patency of the collateral arteries connected to the hilar splenic artery from the left gastric artery or from the gastroepiploic artery on a celiac arteriogram was monitored to avoid total splenic infarction.

Total embolization of the main splenic artery was performed after confirmation of these connections.

All embolization procedures were performed by 2 experienced interventional radiologists. Details of the coiling procedures have been described previously^[9,11,15]. Selective splenic artery, celiac, and superior mesenteric artery angiograms were performed to confirm occlusion of the main splenic artery and patency of the collateral arteries after embolization. Preoperative antibiotic prophylaxis was used routinely for 3 d. Following embolization, patients were monitored and antibiotics were continued after the procedure for several days to avoid infectious complications.

Follow-up protocol and postoperative outcome evaluation

All patients were followed up at our outpatient clinic. Peripheral blood cell parameters, including white blood cell (WBC), PLT, and red blood cell counts, were monitored at different time points prior to the procedure and on days 3, 14, and 30 after the procedure, then at 6-mo intervals during the 3-year follow-up period. To determine the effect of embolization on liver function, serum levels of aspartate aminotransferase, alanine aminotransferase, TB, and albumin were measured and prothrombin time was calculated at the same follow-up time points as above before and after the procedure. The procedure-related frequency and type of complications were recorded.

Abdominal CT scans were routinely performed before and 2 wk after the procedure, and then every 6 mo during the follow-up. Based on enhanced CT images, the pretreatment splenic volume and the post-embolization residual splenic volume were measured and compared on a workstation (Siemens Syngo MMWP VEZIA) using the volumetric analysis software. The infarcted splenic volume (mL) was measured by subtracting the noninfarcted splenic volume from the pretreatment splenic volume. The splenic infarction rate was calculated by dividing the infarcted splenic volume by the pretreatment splenic volume ($\times 100\%$).

The procedure-related complications were divided into major and minor ones. Major complications associated with the procedure, including splenic abscess, splenic rupture, pneumonia, refractory ascites or pleural effusion, gastrointestinal bleeding, rupture of varices, and hepatic failure, were defined as complicated disease requiring surgical intervention or prolonged postoperative hospital stay time of more than 30 d. Minor complications, including abdominal pain, fever, vomiting, abdominal fullness, and appetite loss, were defined as those that lead to no consequential events and can be tolerated by the patients.

Statistical analysis

All data were expressed as mean \pm SD. Changes in WBC and PLT counts after PSE were evaluated by paired *t* test. The variables between the 2 groups were compared by Mann-Whitney test, χ^2 -test or Fisher's exact test when ap-

Table 1 Outcomes of total embolization of the main splenic artery in 15 patients

Pa./age (yr)/sex	Virus	Child-Pugh	WBC count ($\times 10^9/L$)						Platelets ($\times 10^9/L$)						Splenic volumn (cm^3)					Compli- cation	Follow-up (mo)	Out-comes	
			Pre-EM	1 mo	6 mo	1 yr	2 yr	3 yr	Pre-EM	1 mo	6 mo	1 yr	2 yr	3 yr	Pre-EM	1 mo	6 mo	1 yr	2 yr				3 yr
1/48/F	B	A	1.3	7.8	6.5	5.3	4.9	5.1	35	181	142	136	132	128	829	367	265	265	312	312	AP, F, V	52	Alive
2/52/M	B	B	1.8	9.8	5.3	5.6	5.6	4.4	24	191	156	148	145	139	768	258	326	326	367	367	F, V	48	Alive
3/60/M	B	A	1.6	8.6	6.5	6.3	4.2	6.4	33	233	185	157	132	142	869	369	328	328	305	305	AP, F	47	Alive
4/51/M	B	A	1.8	8.3	5.4	7.2	6.2	4.6	45	173	158	156	148	132	815	289	289	287	250	285	F, V	45	Alive
5/34/F	B	A	1.1	7.8	7.2	6.8	5.2	4.5	48	165	161	152	153	148	724	366	242	235	235	235	AP, V	41	Alive
6/49/M	B	C	1.4	8.6	4.8	4.6	4.4	4.8	43	144	43	139	132	123	698	278	278	278	278	278	AP, V	40	Alive
7/50/F	B	A	1.5	8.5	5.8	4.8	4.6	4.2	25	156	145	146	134	129	758	325	325	312	314	314		37	Alive
8/59/M	C	B	1.1	7.8	6.3	6.7	7.3	4.8	36	143	145	132	128	132	846	319	319	310	310	310	AP, F, V	36	Alive
9/28/M	B	A	1.5	9.6	6.0	5.1	5.2	5.3	48	213	167	164	156	147	687	247	247	247	249	276	AP, F,	36	Alive
10/55/M	B	A	0.8	7.3	6.9	5.6	5.4	4.5	32	121	125	131	128	124	784	305	305	298	320	320	AP, F, V	42	Alive
11/58/F	B	C	1.7	6.8	8.5	6.8	3.9	4.2	26	163	184	146	139	132	755	362	362	362	362	345	AP, F	38	Alive
12/46/M	B	A	0.9	5.3	4.8	3.8	4.5		48	146	135	141	136		732	247	285	285	285		AP, F, V	28	Alive
13/58/F	C	A	1.2	8.2	3.8	4.8	5.0		32	153	138	146	134		848	328	328	318	315		AP, F	30	Alive
14/55/F	B	B	1.4	8.3	5.2	4.5	4.4		35	164	176	163	165		683	361	356	346	327			26	Alive
15/48/M	B	A	1.6	8.8	6.3	6.2	6.4		38	241	220	168	137		752	298	305	315	315		AP, F	24	Alive

Pre-EM: Pre-embolization; AP: Abdominal pain; F: Fever; V: Vomiting; WBC: White blood cell.

propriate. All statistical analyses were performed using the SPSS package, version 13.0 (SPSS, Chicago, Illinois, USA).

RESULTS

Primary procedure results

Total embolization of the main splenic artery was technically successful in all patients, with no procedure-related complications. The mean postoperative hospital stay time was 8.40 ± 2.53 d (range, 5–15 d) after the procedure and the 30 d mortality rate was zero.

Minor complications occurred in 13 patients with no major complications found after the procedure. The most frequent side effects were abdominal pain, fever, and nausea. Prolonged fever, lasting over 15 d after the procedure, developed in 1 case. These side effects were controlled after conservative therapy.

Changes in peripheral blood cell counts after embolization

The outcomes of total embolization of the main splenic artery in 15 patients are shown in Table 1. All patients were assessed 1 and 6 mo, and 1, 2, 3 years after the procedure. The patients were followed up for 38.0 ± 8.32 mo (range, 24–52 mo). The mean WBC count increased from $1.4 (0.3) \times 10^9/L$ before the procedure to $8.1 (1.1) \times 10^9/L$, $6.0 (1.2) \times 10^9/L$, $5.6 (1.0) \times 10^9/L$, $5.1 (0.9) \times 10^9/L$, and $4.8 (0.9) \times 10^9/L$, respectively, 1 and 6 mo, and 1, 2, 3 years after the procedure ($P < 0.01$).

The mean PLT count increased from $36.5 (8.3) \times 10^9/L$ before the procedure to $172 (34.1) \times 10^9/L$, $152 (38.7) \times 10^9/L$, $148 (11.6) \times 10^9/L$, $140 (11.1) \times 10^9/L$, and $134 (8.6) \times 10^9/L$, respectively, 1 and 6 mo, and 1, 2, 3 years after the procedure ($P < 0.01$).

Changes in splenic volume after embolization

The mean splenic volume decreased from $769.87 (60.51) cm^3$

before the procedure to $314.60 (44.52) cm^3$, $304.0 (36.10) cm^3$, $300.80 (35.20) cm^3$, $301.73 (35.17) cm^3$, and $306.00 (32.02) cm^3$, respectively, 1 and 6 mo, and 1, 2, 3 years after the procedure ($P < 0.05$). During the follow-up, the residual splenic volume in these patients increased a very slowly. The mean infarction rate of the spleen was 60% (range, 59%–61%) 3 years after the procedure. No death occurred during the follow-up.

DISCUSSION

The results of his study show that total embolization of the main splenic artery with coils is a safe and feasible procedure for hypersplenism due to liver cirrhosis. The peripheral blood cell parameters including WBC and PLT counts increased significantly during the follow-up and the residual splenic volume increased very slowly after embolization.

Hypersplenism is a well-known complication of portal hypertension due to cirrhosis, which can result in thrombocytopenia and/or leukocytopenia. Splenectomy can eliminate hypersplenism-induced blood cell destruction, but the incidence of severe complications after splenectomy is 9.6%–26.6% whether laparoscopy or open splenectomy is performed^[16–18]. In addition, splenectomy is often associated with an increased long-term risk of septic events^[16–18].

Although PSE is an effective alternative to splenectomy to increase the peripheral blood cell counts^[1–5], severe complications of PSE, such as splenic abscess, splenic rupture, pneumonia, refractory ascites or pleural effusion, and gastrointestinal bleeding^[6–8], greatly limit its use. Furthermore, the complications of PSE are correlated with the infarcted splenic volume. In addition, when 50% or less than 50% of the spleen is embolized, hypersplenism would relapse shortly after PSE^[2,8]. Therefore, to ensure a sustained increase in PLT and leukocyte counts,

the splenic infarction rate should be greater than 50%^[8], which, however, inevitably results in severe complications. To increase the PLT and leukocyte counts and reduce the rate of severe complications, total embolization of the main splenic artery was performed for hypersplenism due to liver cirrhosis in the present study.

The key procedure for reducing the severe complications and ensuring the sustained increase in PLT and leukocyte counts is to confirm the patency of collateral arteries connected to the hilar splenic artery from the left gastric artery or from the gastroepiploic artery. If these connections are absent or incomplete, total embolization of the main splenic artery should not be performed because the procedure may result in more severe complications.

When the main splenic artery is completely embolized, the main blood flow supplying the spleen is stopped, but the collateral arteries connected to the hilar splenic artery from the left gastric artery or from the gastroepiploic artery may provide a small amount of blood for the spleen to avoid complete infarction of the spleen. Thus, most of the spleen should be embolized with reservation of a partial normal spleen. Thus, the PLT and leukocyte counts increase after the procedure, and the occurrence of severe complications can be circumvented. In this study, the safety and feasibility of total embolization for hypersplenism of the main splenic artery were studied.

As compared with PSE, total embolization of the main splenic artery has the following advantages, including a low risk of procedure-related complications, persistent maintenance of normal WBC and PLT counts, and a very slow increase in residual splenic volume.

Although these results are encouraging, this study had the following limitations. First, it was not a comparative study and the number of patients was small with no control group. Future randomized multicenter trials comparing PSE with total embolization are needed to determine their long-term clinical efficacy and risk of complications. Second, total embolization could not be performed in patients with no or incomplete collateral arteries.

In conclusion, total embolization of the main splenic artery is a safe and feasible procedure for hypersplenism with thrombocytopenia or leukocytopenia accompanying liver cirrhosis and may serve as a supplemental treatment modality for it. Further clinical trials and expanded follow-up studies are needed to confirm its safety.

COMMENTS

Background

Partial splenic embolization (PSE) is a non-surgical procedure for hypersplenism resulting from hepatic disease, thus avoiding the disadvantages of splenectomy. However, after PSE, patients often experience complications, including daily intermittent fever, abdominal pain, nausea, vomiting, and postembolization syndrome.

Research frontiers

Total embolization of the splenic artery has been widely used in treatment of splenic artery aneurysms, but no report is available on treatment of hypersplenism with it. In this study, total embolization of the main splenic artery for hyper-

splenism with thrombocytopenia or leukocytopenia accompanying liver cirrhosis was studied.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Total embolization of the main splenic artery was devised for the treatment of hypersplenism with thrombocytopenia or leukocytopenia accompanying liver cirrhosis. All procedures were performed under fluoroscopic control. This is the first study reporting the treatment of hypersplenism with total embolization of the main splenic artery.

Applications

Total embolization of the main splenic artery is a safe and feasible procedure and may serve as a supplemental treatment modality for hypersplenism with thrombocytopenia or leukocytopenia accompanying liver cirrhosis with a low complication rate and a good mid-term clinical efficacy.

Terminology

Hypersplenism is a well-known complication of portal hypertension due to cirrhosis, which can result in thrombocytopenia and leukocytopenia.

Peer review

The finding in this study is interesting. Further study is needed confirm its safety in a much larger series of patients.

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Antitumor activity of mutant bacterial cytosine deaminase gene for colon cancer

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Abstract

AIM: To evaluate bacterial cytosine deaminase (bCD) mutant D314A and 5-fluorocytosine (5-FC) for treatment of colon cancer in a mouse model.

METHODS: Recombinant lentivirus vectors that contained wild-type bCD gene (bCDwt), and bCD mutant D314A gene (bCD-D314A) with green fluorescence protein gene were constructed and used to infect human colon carcinoma LoVo cells, to generate stable transfected cells, LoVo/null, LoVo/bCDwt or LoVo/bCD-D314A. These were injected subcutaneously into Balb/c nude mice to establish xenograft models. Two weeks post-LoVo cell inoculation, PBS or 5-FC (500 mg/kg) was administered by intraperitoneal (i.p.) injection once daily for 14 d. On the day after LoVo cell injection, mice were monitored daily for tumor volume and survival.

RESULTS: Sequence analyses confirmed the construction of recombinant lentiviral plasmids that contained bCDwt or bCD-D314A. The lentiviral vector had high ef-

ficacy for gene delivery, and RT-PCR showed that bCDwt or bCD-D314A gene was transferred to LoVo cells. Among these treatment groups, gene delivery or 5-FC administration alone had no effect on tumor growth. However, bCDwt/5-FC or bCD-D314A/5-FC treatment inhibited tumor growth and prolonged survival of mice significantly ($P < 0.05$). Importantly, the tumor volume in the bCD-D314A/5-FC-treated group was lower than that in the bCDwt/5-FC group ($P < 0.05$), and bCD-D314A plus 5-FC significantly prolonged survival of mice in comparison with bCDwt plus 5-FC ($P < 0.05$).

CONCLUSION: The bCD mutant D314A enhanced significantly antitumor activity in human colon cancer xenograft models, which provides a promising approach for human colon carcinoma therapy.

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Key words: Suicide gene therapy; Bacterial cytosine deaminase; Mutant; D314A; 5-fluorocytosine; Colon cancer

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INTRODUCTION

Colorectal cancer has one of the highest mortalities worldwide^[1]. Conventional therapies consist of surgery, chemotherapy, radiotherapy, and biotherapy. Despite advances in the treatment of colorectal cancer, the prognosis for locally advanced or metastatic disease remains relatively

poor^[2]. Therefore, it is crucial to develop novel therapeutic strategies, not only to completely cure cancer, but also to prevent its recurrence. Among these approaches, gene-directed enzyme-prodrug therapy (GDEPT) has received considerable attention^[3,4].

Suicide gene therapy for cancer is an appealing alternative to standard methods of chemotherapy because most chemotherapeutic agents lack tumor specificity. Classic chemotherapeutic agents are often unable to distinguish tumor cells from normal dividing cells, which results in indiscriminate toxic effects. In contrast, suicide gene therapy allows for specific targeting of the tumor while preventing damage to normal cells. This is accomplished by introducing a gene that encodes a prodrug-activating enzyme into cancer cells. Although delivery systems have not been fully optimized, delivery of the gene is typically done using either a viral vector (retrovirus or adenovirus) or by other non-viral means^[5-7]. Once the gene is delivered into the cancer cell, a non-toxic prodrug is administered. The enzyme converts the non-toxic prodrug into its active and lethal form that results in cancer cell death. *Escherichia coli* or bacterial cytosine deaminase (bCD) is responsible for the activation of the non-toxic prodrug 5-fluorocytosine (5-FC) to its toxic form, 5-fluorouracil (5-FU)^[8]. The absence of an endogenous cytosine deaminase in mammalian cells provides for deamination of 5-FC only in cells that express bCD. This is followed by the conversion of 5-FU into its deoxyribonucleoside, fluorodeoxyuridine (FdUR) by thymidine phosphorylase. Upon phosphorylation of FdUR by endogenous thymidine kinase, thymidylate synthase is irreversibly inhibited by the product, 5FdUMP, thereby preventing dTTP formation and ultimately leading to inhibition of DNA synthesis.

One of the key advantages of the bCD/5-FC enzyme/prodrug system is the phenomenon known as the “bystander effect”, which is defined as the killing of untransfected cells neighboring those cells transfected with the suicide gene^[8]. This type of killing has been described extensively with regard to the herpes simplex virus-1 thymidine kinase and ganciclovir enzyme/prodrug system, and occurs primarily by the transfer of toxic antimetabolites through gap junctions^[9,10]. Unlike phosphorylated ganciclovir, 5-FU is a small, uncharged molecule that can pass freely in and out of the cell by diffusion. Consequently, cell-cell contact is not required for the bystander effect with bCD/5-FC; an advantage for those cell types with limited gap junctions^[11]. bCD has been used successfully in gene therapy for a variety of animal tumor models and is currently under investigation for the treatment of human cancers^[12-15].

The limiting factors for successful suicide GDEPT are transfection efficiency and the ability of the enzyme to turn over the prodrug, which is an analog of its natural substrate. From a kinetic perspective, 5-FC is a poor substrate for bCD ($K_m = 3.3$ mmol/L) compared with its native substrate, cytosine ($K_m = 0.2$ mmol/L)^[16]. Thus, high doses of this prodrug must be administered to achieve cell killing. The plasma levels of 5-FC required to obtain a significant amount of active metabolites may lead to adverse effects. This is observed with 5-FC, whereas deamination

by CD of bacterial intestinal microflora into 5-FU is responsible for side effects^[17]. Other studies have suggested that the CD from *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* (yCD) displays a kinetic advantage towards 5-FC over bCD^[18]. However, yCD is considerably less thermostable than bCD; a characteristic that may make the bacterial enzyme a preferable catalytic system for gene therapy.

Fortunately, Mahan *et al.*^[16,19] have used random mutagenesis to create novel bCDs that demonstrate an increased preference for 5-FC over cytosine. Among these mutants isolated, the mutant D314A [substitution of an alanine (A) for the aspartic acid (D) at position 314 of bCD] enzyme demonstrates a dramatic decrease in cytosine activity (17-fold), as well as a slight increase in activity toward 5-FC (twofold), which indicates that mutant D314A prefers the prodrug over cytosine by almost 20-fold. Despite the thermostability of yCD, others have suggested that yCD is superior to bCD in gene therapy settings because of a 23-fold relative substrate preference for 5-FC that is displayed by yCD^[18]. However, given the thermostability of bCD and the 19-fold relative substrate preference that the bCD mutant D314A displays towards 5-FC, bCD D314A may be a superior suicide gene to yCD. These results indicate that bCD mutant D314A is a superior candidate for suicide gene therapy. Recently, this mutant D314A has been demonstrated to enhance cytotoxicity of human glioma and pancreatic cancer cells, and to increase therapeutic efficacy against human glioma and human pancreatic tumor xenografts, especially combined with radiotherapy^[20,21]. However, there have been only a few studies of bCD mutants in colorectal cancer.

Previously, we have used the bCD gene to treat colon cancer, and have found that the efficacy of wild-type bCD is not sufficient to abolish cancer cells *in vitro* or *in vivo*, therefore, combination therapy with other genes, such as interleukin-2 or interferon- γ , is needed to improve the cytotoxicity of bCD^[7,22,23]. Recently, we have constructed bCD-D314A using site-directed mutagenesis^[19], and have demonstrated that it has significantly increased cytotoxicity in human colon cancer cell line LoVo, compared with wild-type bCD (bCDwt) *in vitro*^[24].

The aim of the present study was to investigate whether bCD-D314A suicide gene and 5-FC prodrug therapy produce increased therapeutic efficacy *in vivo* for human colon cancer in nude mice using lentiviral vectors. The results presented here indicated that mutant bCD-D314A was able to significantly enhance antitumor efficacy in human colon cancer xenograft models *in vivo* compared with bCDwt.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Cells and cell culture

Human colon cancer cell line LoVo (CCL-229; ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) was cultured in RPMI-1640 medium (Gibco, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA) supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS; Gibco). HEK 293T (human embryonic kidney 293T cell line containing SV40 large T antigen) (CRL-11268; ATCC) was cultured in Dulbecco's Modified Eagle's Medium (Gibco) supplemented with 10% cosmic calf serum (Hy-

clone, Logan, UT, USA), 2 mmol/L L-glutamine (Sigma, St. Louis, MO, USA), 100 U/mL penicillin (Sigma) and 0.1 mg/mL streptomycin (Sigma). LoVo and HEK 293T cells were in a 5% CO₂-humidified atmosphere at 37°C.

Reagents, animals, plasmids and vectors

5-FC was obtained from Sigma. Restriction enzymes *Hind* III, *Kpn* I, *Nhe* I, *Eco*R I and *Dpn* I, T4 DNA ligase, pfu DNA polymerase, DNA marker DL2000 and PCR reagents were obtained from Takara (Otsu, Shiga, Japan). Primers were chemically synthesized by Shanghai Generay Co. Ltd. (Shanghai, China). The plasmid DNA extraction (Mini) kit was provided by Qiagen (Crawley, West Sussex, UK). TRIzol and Lipofectamine 2000™ transfection reagent were obtained from Invitrogen.

Female athymic Balb/c (nu/nu) nude mice were purchased from Shanghai SLAC Laboratory Animal Co. Ltd. (Shanghai, China) and were housed under aseptic conditions in micro-isolator cages, which were approved by the local Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee.

The plasmid pcDNA3.1/bCDwt that contained whole-length wild-type bCD gene, and pcDNA3.1/bCD-D314A that contained the mutant *D314A* gene, were prepared and stored in our department. The pLJM1-GFP lentivirus vector with green fluorescence protein (GFP) gene was a generous gift from Prof. J Li (Nanjing Medical University).

Recombinant bCDwt or bCD-D314A plasmids construction and identification

The pcDNA3.1-bCDwt and pcDNA3.1-bCD-D314A plasmids were all double digested with *Hind* III and *Kpn* I. The products of enzyme digestion were connected to the lentiviral vector pLJM1-GFP, which was double digested with *Nhe* I and *Eco*R I, to produce pLJM1-bCDwt-GFP and pLJM1-bCD-D314A-GFP. These plasmids were then transformed into *E. coli* XL1-Blue. The colonies were selected for PCR identification. The sense sequence of bCD primers was 5'-CGCAAATGGGCGGTAGGCGTG-3', whereas the antisense sequence was 5'AATTCTCAACGTTTGTAATCGATGG-3'. These recombinant plasmids were extracted and sent to BGI Sequencing Company (Shanghai, China) for sequencing.

Recombinant lentivirus construction, cell infection and stable cell line generation

To produce recombinant lentiviruses that encoded bCDwt, bCD-D314A or GFP gene, three types of plasmids (pLJM1-bCDwt-GFP, pLJM1-bCD-D314A-GFP and pLJM1-GFP) were transfected to 293T cells according to the instructions for Lipofectamine 2000™ (Invitrogen). The virus-containing supernatant was collected 48 h after transfection, concentrated by centrifugation (4000 r/min, 4°C for 5 min), and filtered with a 0.45-µm membrane filter. The virus titers were determined in 293T cells.

For LoVo cell infection, there were three groups: bCDwt-GFP, bCD-D314A-GFP, and GFP (null). LoVo cells were seeded at a density of 1×10^5 cells in a 60-mm plate and infected with different lentiviral vectors in the presence of 10 µg/mL polybrene (Millipore, Billerica,

MA, USA). At 10-12 h post-infection, the growth medium was replaced. Forty-eight hours later, the GFP expression of transduced cells was observed under fluorescence microscopy. LoVo cells were infected twice in the same way. At 3 d after transfection, the FACSCalibur flow cytometer (BD, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA) was used for fluorescence-activated cell sorting and then stable transfected cells, LoVo/null, LoVo/bCDwt and LoVo/bCD-D314A were cultured in a 5% CO₂-humidified incubator at 37°C.

Detection of bCD gene in transfected LoVo cells with RT-PCR

Total RNA was extracted from transfected LoVo cells harvested from the different groups with TRIzol reagent. First-strand cDNA was synthesized by reverse transcription according to the instructions for M2MLV (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). The sense sequence of bCD primers used in RT-PCR was 5'TTATGTCGAATAACGCTT-TACAAAC-3', whereas the antisense sequence was 5'TACCTCCACGTTTGTAATCGATGGC-3'. PCR was performed for 35 cycles (94°C for 1 min, 60°C for 1.5 min, 72°C for 1.5 min) in an automated DNA Thermal Cycler (Perkin-Elmer Cetus, Norwalk, CT, USA).

Xenograft tumor model study

To compare antitumor effects of bCDwt- and bCD-D314A-mediated molecular chemotherapy *in vivo*, combination of 5-FC, pools of LoVo, LoVo/null, LoVo/bCDwt or LoVo/bCD-D314A cells [5×10^6 cells in 100 µL PBS (pH 7.3)] were injected subcutaneously (s.c.) into the right flanks of 5-6-wk-old female Balb/c nude mice ($n = 20$, respectively). Two weeks post-LoVo cell inoculation, PBS or 5-FC (500 mg/kg) was administered by i.p. injection once daily for 14 d. Starting at day 1, the tumor volume was monitored daily using caliper measurement, calculated using the formula: $\pi/6 \times (\text{width} \times \text{length})^2$. On the day after LoVo cell injection, mice were monitored daily for survival.

Statistical analysis

The treatment groups were compared with respect to tumor size. To test for significant differences in tumor volume among treatment groups, one-way ANOVA was conducted. When ANOVA indicated that a significant difference existed ($P < 0.05$), multiple comparison procedures were used to determine where the differences lay. Kaplan-Meier survival curves were analyzed by the log-rank test, and specific pairwise multiple comparisons were made using the Holm-Sidak method. All comparisons were made using the 0.05 level of significance.

RESULTS

Identification of recombinant lentiviral plasmids

Sequencing results of recombinant lentiviral plasmids showed that pLJM1-bCDwt-GFP contained the wild-type bCD gene, and pLJM1-bCD-D314A-GFP contained the mutant D314A (Figure 1), which indicated that the two recombinant lentiviral plasmids were constructed successfully.

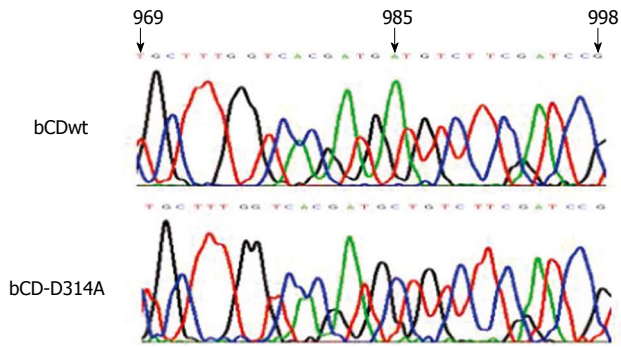


Figure 1 Sequencing results of recombinant plasmid pLJM1-bCDwt and pLJM1-bCD-D314A. The codon 985 of bCDwt, A, was mutated to C in bCD-D314A, which was the mutant D314A of bCD.

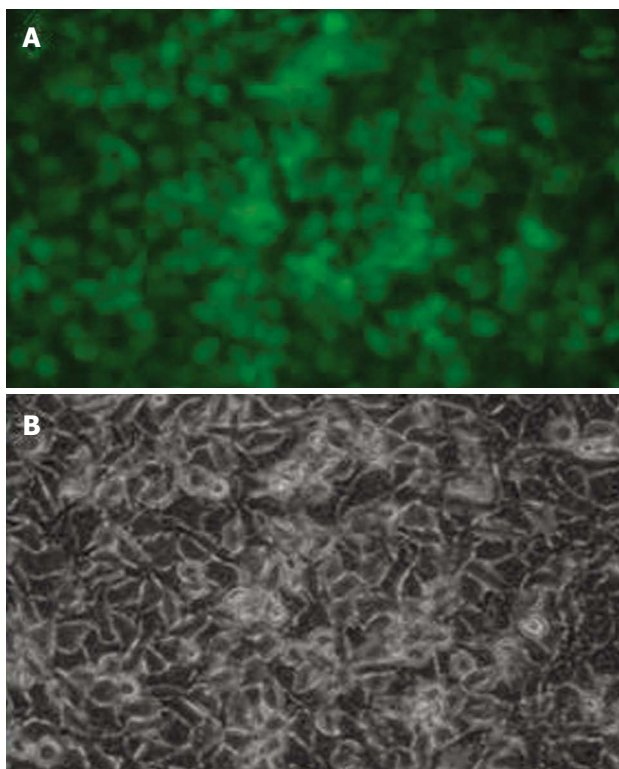


Figure 2 LoVo cell with fluorescence after transfection with lentiviral vector containing bCDwt-GFP gene ($\times 100$). A: Green fluorescence field; B: Visible light field.

Efficacy of gene delivery by lentiviral vectors

Lentiviral vectors have improved efficiency to deliver genes. In this study, GFP was used as a reporter gene. Figure 2 shows that the efficacy of gene delivery by lentiviral vectors was satisfactory.

Identification of bCD gene in LoVo cells transfected with lentiviral vectors

LoVo cells transfected with different lentiviral vectors, LoVo/null, LoVo/bCDwt and LoVo/bCD-D314A, were subjected to RT-PCR to identify bCD gene expression. As shown in Figure 3, LoVo/bCDwt and LoVo/bCD-D314A cells had bCD gene expression, while bCD gene was not detected in LoVo/null cells.

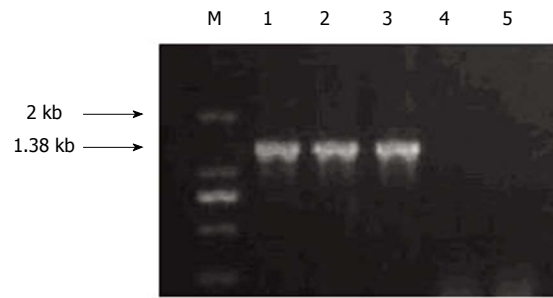


Figure 3 Identification of bCD gene in LoVo cells transfected with different lentiviral vectors. M: Marker; 1: Positive control (pcDNA3.1/bCDwt); 2: LoVo/bCDwt; 3: LoVo bCD-D314A; 4: LoVo/null; 5: Negative control (LoVo).

Antitumor effects of bCDwt and bCD-D314A in combination with 5-FU in human colon carcinoma xenograft model

To evaluate the potential of bCD-D314A gene therapy with 5-FU *in vivo*, LoVo cells with different stably gene delivery were injected s.c. into the right flank of athymic nude mice. Two weeks after cell inoculation, before treatment, the tumors in each group were palpable and the mean volumes in each group did not differ significantly among the treatment groups ($P > 0.05$), and within treatment variances (PBS *vs* 5-FU) were not significantly different ($P > 0.05$). The baseline mean tumor volume at 14 d after tumor cell injection was $412.63 \pm 36.79 \text{ mm}^3$.

PBS or 5-FU (500 mg/kg) was administered i.p. once daily for 2 wk. Starting at day 1, mice were monitored for tumor volume and survival. Inhibition of tumor growth was initially noted in mice treated with LoVo/bCDwt or LoVo/bCD-D314A in combination with 5-FU compared with the other groups on day 20 ($P < 0.05$) (Figure 4). There were no significant differences in tumor growth between the other groups ($P > 0.05$), which indicated that gene delivery or 5-FU administration alone had no influence on tumor growth. From day 20 onwards, tumors in the mice treated with LoVo/bCD-D314A and 5-FU shrunk daily, whereas the tumors in mice treated with LoVo/bCDwt and 5-FU increased gradually. The difference in tumor volume between these two groups became increasingly marked ($P < 0.05$). At the same time, the tumors in the other groups kept growing (Figure 4).

As to the influence of bCD-D314A and bCDwt on survival, we showed that bCD-D314A/5-FU or bCDwt/5-FU treatment significantly prolonged survival of mice in comparison with the other groups. As shown in Figure 5, the median survival time of other groups was about 35 d and there was no difference among them ($P > 0.05$), whereas it was prolonged to 62 or 94 d in the bCDwt/5-FU or bCD-D314A/5-FU group, respectively ($P < 0.05$). Furthermore, bCD-D314A plus 5-FU significantly prolonged survival of mice in comparison with bCDwt plus 5-FU ($P < 0.05$).

DISCUSSION

Worldwide, more than one million individuals will develop colorectal cancer annually, and the disease-specific mortal-

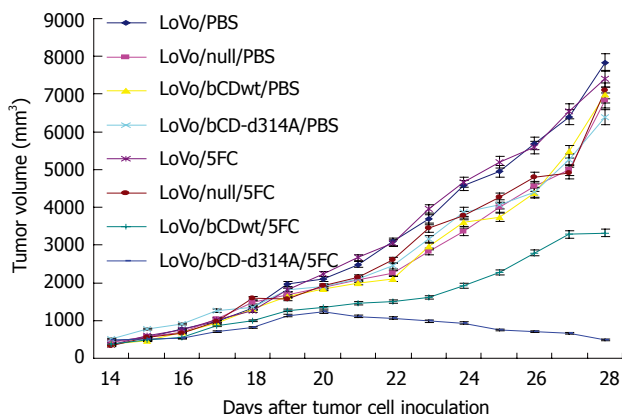


Figure 4 Growth of LoVo, LoVo/null, LoVo/bCDwt, and LoVo/bCD-D314A xenografts treated with PBS or 5-fluorocytosine. Treatment was started on 14 d after tumor cell inoculation. PBS or 5-fluorocytosine (5-FC) (500 mg/kg) was injected intraperitoneal once a day for 14 d. Data points represent the mean tumor volume of each group of animals. bCD: Bacterial cytosine deaminase; bCDwt: Wild-type bCD; bCD-D314A: bCD mutant D314A; LoVo/null: LoVo cell transfected with pLJM1-GFP; LoVo/bCDwt: LoVo cell transfected with pLJM1-bCDwt-GFP; LoVo/bCD-D314A: LoVo cell transfected with pLJM1-bCD-D314A-GFP.

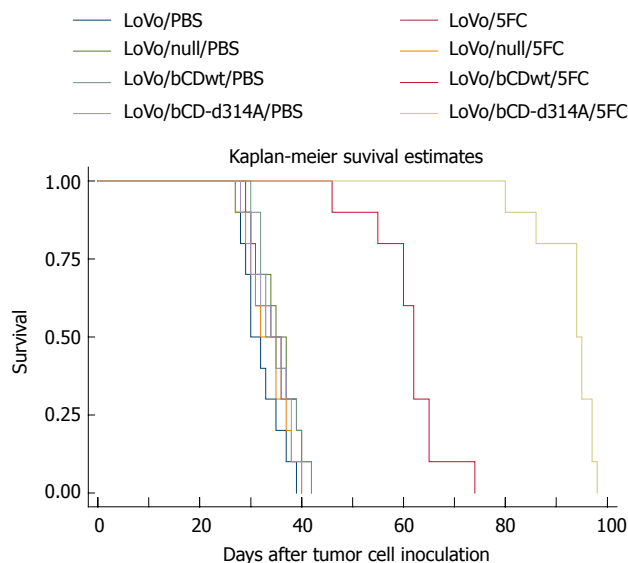


Figure 5 Efficacy of wild-type bCD gene or bCD mutant D314A gene suicide gene therapy in human colon carcinoma xenografts. LoVo human colon carcinoma cells with different gene transfection (5×10^6 cells/mouse) were injected into the right flank of athymic nude mice (10 mice/group). Two weeks after tumor cell injection, PBS or 5-fluorocytosine (5-FC) (500 mg/kg) was injected intraperitoneal once a day for 14 d. On the day after LoVo cell injection, mice were monitored daily for survival. bCD: Bacterial cytosine deaminase; bCDwt: wild-type bCD; bCD-D314A: bCD mutant D314A; LoVo/null: LoVo cell transfected with pLJM1-GFP; LoVo/bCDwt: LoVo cell transfected with pLJM1-bCDwt-GFP; LoVo/bCD-D314A: LoVo cell transfected with pLJM1-bCD-D314A-GFP.

ity rate is nearly 33% in the developed world^[1]. Substantial progress has been made in understanding the molecular pathogenesis, diagnosis (hereditary and sporadic), and treatment of colorectal cancer during recent decades. Despite the use of 5-FU-based combination chemotherapy and active targeted drugs for treatment of metastatic colorectal cancer in the past decade, and improvement in overall survival for non-resectable disease, cure rates remain low^[25]. There is a need for the development of new alternative therapeutic strategies. Gene therapy is a novel approach that might lead to improved treatments for colorectal cancer. Among these approaches, GDEPT using the bCD/5-FC system has been developed. The gene that encodes the CD that converts the prodrug 5-FC to 5-FU is delivered to the target tumor cells, which results in their death.

The most important characteristic of suicide gene therapy is its bystander effect. Although the viral or non-viral gene delivery systems currently available have poor efficacy for *in vivo* gene transfer, complete eradication of tumors has been seen in some experimental animal models, which is thought to depend on the bystander killing effect. In the bCD/5-FC system, the bystander effect is caused by the passive diffusion of 5-FU into the extracellular milieu and its diffusion into the adjacent cells, which requires no gap junctions^[11]. The immune-related response also contributes to the bystander effect^[26], which has been confirmed by our experimental results from the immunocompetent and immunodeficient mice^[27]. Although this approach has been in development for several decades, new combinations with cancer therapies, such as selective conventional chemotherapy^[28] and radiotherapy^[29], are being tested.

Unlike conventional chemotherapy, suicide gene therapy renders specific killing of the tumor cells that express the suicide gene, but it may lead to systemic toxicity if these genes are delivered to normal cells. Thus, target specificity is of great importance to suicide gene therapy. The rationale

behind suicide gene therapy is that, after targeted transfer of these genes into tumor cells, only tumor and neighboring cells will be rendered sensitive to their cytotoxic action. Specifically, targeted expression of the prodrug-activating enzyme avoids systemic toxicity, and results in high drug concentrations in the tumor mass and an improved therapeutic index compared with non-targeted gene delivery. To kill carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA)-positive colorectal carcinoma cells specifically using the bCD/5-FC system, we have constructed a new replication-deficient recombinant adenoviral vector that contains the bCD gene controlled by the CEA promoter, AdCEACD, and have evaluated its *in vitro* cytotoxic effects. We have shown that this vector can transfer bCD to CEA-positive tumor cells specifically by comparing the vector with cytomegalovirus (CMV) promoter, AdCMVCD^[7]. However, the cytotoxic effects of bCD/5-FC decreased to some extent^[22,23]. Although this loss of activity may be due to differences in transcriptional activation between the CEA and CMV promoters, the low affinity displayed by wild-type bCD towards 5-FC in comparison with cytosine is thought to be the principal factor that leads to the relatively poor turnover of 5-FC of wild-type bCD and limits the overall therapeutic response.

It has been shown previously that the bCD mutant, D314A, decreased efficiency for endogenous cytosine, which can compete with the prodrug for the active enzyme site, in combination with increased efficiency for 5-FC that resulted in a 19-fold relative substrate preference for 5-FC in comparison with bCDwt^[16,19]. The bCD mutant D314A has been demonstrated to be an excellent candidate for

subsequent preclinical comparisons with wild-type bCD and yCD.

Recently, we have constructed the bCD mutant D314A using site-directed mutagenesis. The *in vitro* results have indicated that its killing and bystander effects on human colon cancer LoVo cells are enhanced significantly as compared with wild-type bCD^[24]. Thus, the rationale for using the mutant bCD gene for colon carcinoma *in vivo* is that the bCD mutant D314A can more effectively convert 5-FC to 5-FU, and increase the antitumor activity and prolong survival.

In the present study, we investigated mutant bCD gene transfer with lentiviral vector for treatment of human colon cancer in xenograft models. Lentivirus-based vectors (lentivectors) have been developed with improved efficiency, specificity, and safety, and are being increasingly used in basic and applied research. Clinical trials of human gene therapy are currently underway using lentivectors in a wide range of human diseases^[30]. In the present study, lentiviral vector was used to transfer suicide genes. These preliminary results confirmed the efficacy of lentiviral vector for suicide gene delivery.

After the LoVo cells stably transfected with bCDwt gene or mutant bCD-D314A gene were established, they were inoculated into athymic nude mice to produce xenograft tumor models. Afterwards, 5-FC was administered. As expected, a more potent cytotoxicity effect for colon cancer was obtained using bCD-D314A/5-FC treatment in comparison with bCDwt/5-FC. During 5-FC administration, the tumors treated with bCDwt/5-FC or bCD-D314A/5-FC grew slower than those in other treatment groups, which indicated that 5-FC or suicide gene transfer alone had no effect on colon cancer. The comparative study of bCD-D314A/5-FC and bCDwt/5-FC showed an increased antitumor effect, and decreased tumor growth was observed following bCD-D314A/5-FC gene therapy. Furthermore, survival analysis showed that bCD-D314A/5-FC therapy prolonged life significantly, which confirmed the enhanced antitumor activity of bCD mutant D314A.

Although the intratumoral or blood 5-FU concentration was not estimated after 5-FC administration in this study, the enhanced antitumor effect of bCD mutant D314A in combination with 5-FC was thought to be due to its ability to convert 5-FC to 5-FU more effectively, which is consistent with recently published data in other tumor models^[20,21]. The blood and tumor levels of 5-FC and 5-FU are a subject for future studies that will enable a rational dosing strategy.

In summary, our studies provide preliminary evidence that treatment using bCD mutant D314A for suicide gene/5-FC prodrug therapy is a promising approach for treatment of human colon carcinoma. Further studies on delivery systems, doses and protocols would be worthwhile to optimize this approach.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The authors thank Professor Jian-Ming Li for the kind gift of pLJM1.

COMMENTS

Background

Suicide gene therapy is an appealing alternative to conventional therapies for colorectal cancer. Bacterial cytosine deaminase (bCD) can convert the non-toxic prodrug 5-fluorocytosine (5-FC) to its toxic form, 5-fluorouracil (5-FU). However, 5-FC is a poor substrate for bCD compared with its native substrate, cytosine, and its antitumor effect is limited.

Research frontiers

The bCD mutant, D314A, has been shown to prefer 5-FC over cytosine by nearly 20-fold, and has been demonstrated to enhance therapeutic efficacy against human glioma and human pancreatic tumors. However, there have been only a few studies of bCD mutants in colorectal cancer.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Recently, the authors have constructed the bCD mutant, D314A, using site-directed mutagenesis, and have demonstrated that D314A has significantly increased cytotoxicity on human colon cancer cell line LoVo compared with wild-type bCD (bCDwt). The present study indicated that mutant D314A was able to significantly enhance antitumor efficacy in human colon cancer xenograft models compared with bCDwt.

Applications

Collectively, these studies provide preliminary evidence that treatment using bCD mutant D314A for suicide gene/5-FC prodrug therapy provides a promising approach for human colon carcinoma.

Terminology

Suicide gene therapy is a form of gene-directed enzyme-prodrug therapy. When the suicide gene is delivered to cancer cells and a non-toxic prodrug is administered, the enzyme converts the non-toxic prodrug into its active and lethal form, which results in cancer cell death.

Peer review

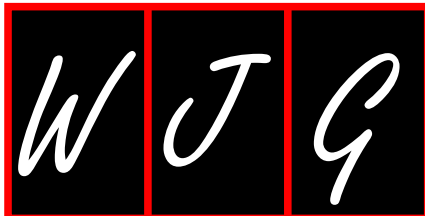
The authors investigated whether bCD mutant D314A suicide gene and 5-FC prodrug therapy increased therapeutic efficacy in a nude mouse model of human colon cancer, using lentiviral vectors. It revealed for the first time that D314A significantly enhanced antitumor activity in human colon cancer xenograft models. The results are useful and may provide a new strategy to treat colorectal cancer.

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CD133⁺ gallbladder carcinoma cells exhibit self-renewal ability and tumorigenicity

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floating spheroids were generated from primary GBC cells, and these sphere-forming cells could generate new progeny spheroids in serum-free media. Spheroid cells were differentiated under serum-containing conditions with downregulation of the stem cell markers Oct-4, Nanog, and nestin ($P < 0.05$). The differentiated cells showed lower spheroid-colony-formation ability than the original spheroid cells ($P < 0.05$). Spheroid cells were more resistant to chemotherapeutic reagents than the congenetic adherent cells ($P < 0.05$). Flow cytometry showed enriched CD133⁺ population in sphere-forming cells ($P < 0.05$). CD133⁺ cells possessed high colony-formation ability than the CD133⁻ population ($P < 0.01$). CD133⁺ cells injected into nude mice revealed higher tumorigenicity than their antigen-negative counterparts ($P < 0.05$).

CONCLUSION: CD133 may be a cell surface marker for CSCs in GBC.

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Key words: Gallbladder carcinoma; Cancer stem cell; Non-adherent spheres; CD133 protein; Self-renewal; Tumorigenicity

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Abstract

AIM: To identify cancer stem cells (CSCs) in human gallbladder carcinomas (GBCs).

METHODS: Primary GBC cells were cultured under serum-free conditions to produce floating spheres. The stem-cell properties of the sphere-forming cells, including self-renewal, differentiation potential, chemoresistance and tumorigenicity, were determined *in vitro* or *in vivo*. Cell surface expression of CD133 was investigated in primary tumors and in spheroid cells using flow cytometry. The sphere-colony-formation ability and tumorigenicity of CD133⁺ cells were assayed.

RESULTS: *In vitro* culture experiments revealed that

INTRODUCTION

Gallbladder carcinoma (GBC) is the most common

malignant neoplasm of the biliary tract and the seventh most common gastrointestinal cancer^[1]. Its clinical presentation is nonspecific and may include abdominal pain, weight loss, fever, and jaundice. Current evidence suggests that radical surgery is the only curative treatment for GBC. However, despite development in surgery, the 5-year survival rate in patients with advanced stage GBC is still only around 10%^[2,3]. Pooling of carcinogens under conditions causing biliary stasis, or malignant degeneration of metaplastic changes after chronic inflammation have been suggested as possible factors, but the precise pathogenetic mechanisms of GBC remain unclear^[1]. The biology of GBC therefore needs further investigation.

Emerging evidence has shown that the abilities for tumor growth and propagation reside in a small population of tumor cells, termed cancer stem cells (CSCs) or tumor-initiating cells. These cells possess properties of self-renewal, differentiation potential, resistance to chemotherapy, and high tumorigenicity^[4-8]. Based on this hypothesis, CSCs were initially isolated from human acute myeloid leukemia^[9]. Regarding solid tumors, the existence of CSCs in breast cancer was reported in 2003, when as few as 200 CD44⁺CD24^{low}ESA⁺ breast cancer cells were shown to be adequate to produce new tumors in nonobese diabetic/severe combined immunodeficient mice, whereas a significantly higher number of other cell populations failed to form tumor xenografts^[10]. Tumor-initiating cells with distinct cell surface markers have recently been identified in various solid tumors, such as brain^[11], prostate^[12], pancreatic^[13], and ovarian cancer^[14], and in Ewing's sarcoma^[15]. It is generally considered that the identification of the CSCs could have a significant impact on the understanding of tumor biology and therapy.

Several different methods have previously been used to identify CSCs^[16,17], including the culture of cancer cells under non-adherent conditions in serum-free media containing epidermal growth factor (EGF) and basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF). The growth of spherical colonies is considered to reflect the self-renewal ability and phenotype of CSCs. In the present study, we cultured primary GBC cells to generate spherical colonies and estimated their differentiation potential in the serum medium. We compared the chemoresistance of spheroid cells and differentiated cells *in vitro*. We also examined the expression of the CSC surface marker CD133, and investigated its use as a candidate marker to further identify the CSC phenotype in GBC, including comparing the *in vitro* spheroid-colony-formation and *in vivo* tumorigenicity of CD133⁺ and CD133⁻ cells. The results of this study may clarify the phenotype of CSCs in GBC, thus contributing to the development of more effective therapeutic approaches.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Preparation of single cancer cells

Two samples of human GBC were obtained after surgical excision in accordance with Institutional Review Board-

approved guidelines. Tumor tissue specimens were dissociated using scissors and scalpels, mixed with collagenase IV (Invitrogen, USA) in medium 199 (collagenase 200 U/mL, Invitrogen), and incubated at 37°C for 2.5-3 h. At the end of the incubation, cells were filtered through a 40- μ m nylon mesh and washed twice with phosphate-buffered saline (PBS)/10% fetal bovine serum (FBS, Gibco, USA).

Tumor cell cultures

The single tumor cells were suspended in serum-free DMEM/F12 (1:1 volume, Gibco) consisting of 20 ng/mL human recombinant EGF (PeproTech, USA), 20 ng/mL bFGF (PeproTech), 5 μ g/mL insulin (Sigma, USA), and cultured in 24-well culture plates at a density of 1×10^4 /well. Fresh serum-free DMEM/F12 (described above) was added into the wells at 0.05 mL/well every day. Spheroids were collected and dissociated 2 wk after primary culture. The resulting single cells were placed into stem cell culture medium to generate progeny spheres. Images of the spheroid colonies were recorded using an inverted microscope (Nikon, Type 108) equipped with a Nikon 2000-S Inverted Photomicroscope and Nikon NIS-Elements F2.30 software.

Differentiation assay

To assess their differentiation potential, spheres were collected and placed into DMEM/F12 supplemented with 10% FBS without growth factors, as described previously, and cell morphology was observed. After 14 d of culture in differentiating medium, tumor cells were collected and suspended in serum-free DMEM/F12 (described above), and cultured in 96-well culture plates at a density of 10 cells per well. Fresh serum-free DMEM/F12 was added into the wells at 0.025 mL per well every day. After 2 wk, each well was examined under light microscope and the total number of spheroid colonies in the 96-well plates was counted.

Real-time quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction

Total RNA was extracted from spheroid cells or adherent cells using RNeasy Mini kit (Qiagen), and was reverse transcribed into cDNA using M-MLV reverse transcriptase enzyme (Sigma). Real-time quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction (RT-PCR) was performed using an ABI PRISM 7900HT sequence detection system (Applied Biosystems), according to the manufacturer's instructions. The relative mRNA expression levels of the tested genes were normalized to the level of endogenous control gene, glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase.

Chemoresistance experiments

Cells were seeded in 96-well plates at 3000 cells per well. Each well was supplied with DMEM medium containing 10% FBS, together with either gemcitabine (1 μ g/mL, Sigma) or 5-fluorouracil (0.1 μ g/mL, Sigma), or no drug as control. The culture medium was changed 3 d after

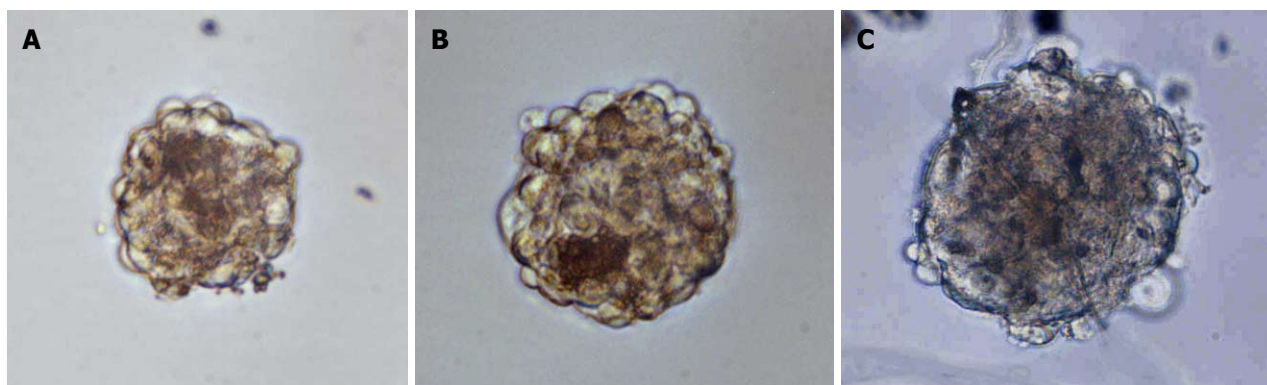


Figure 1 Culture of floating spheres. Single primary gallbladder carcinoma cells were cultured in serum-free medium containing human epidermal growth factor (20 ng/mL) and basic fibroblast growth factor (10 ng/mL). A: After culture for 1 wk, non-adherent spheres were observable (original magnification $\times 200$); B: The spheres were dissociated and were plated into the same stem-cell-selective medium; similar progeny spheres emerged after 2 wk (original magnification $\times 200$); C: The second progeny spheres were derived from the first progeny sphere-forming cells (original magnification $\times 200$).

initial treatment and the number of viable cells was determined using the 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide (MTT) method. Briefly, 20 μL of MTT (5 mg/mL in PBS, Sigma) was added to the medium for 4 h. Medium and MTT were removed, dimethylsulfoxide (Sigma) was added, and the absorbance was measured at 490 nm using a plate reader Multiskan EX (Thermo Fisher Scientific Inc., Waltham, MA).

Detection of CD133 expression using flow cytometry

Cells derived from primary tumors or spheres were separately resuspended in PBS with 2% FBS at a concentration of $10^6/100 \mu\text{L}$. Anti-CD133/1-phycoerythrin (eBioscience, USA) was added to the samples, and incubated on ice for 30 min. After incubation, the samples were washed twice with 2% FBS/PBS and resuspended in 2% FBS/PBS. Flow cytometric analysis was performed using a FACSAria (BD Immunocytometry Systems, Franklin Lakes, NJ, USA).

Spheroid-colony-formation assay of CD133⁺ GBC cells

CD133⁺ and CD133⁻ populations were sorted from sphere-forming cells using fluorescence-activated cell sorting (FACS). For FACS, cells were collected and stained, and sorted using a FACSAria. The sorted tumor cells were suspended in serum-free DMEM/F12, and cultured in 96-well culture plates at a density of 10/well. After 2 wk, the total number of spheroid colonies in the 96-well plate was counted, as described above.

Tumorigenicity of CD133⁺ GBC cells in vivo

Female nude mice (BALB/C), 4-6 wk old, were purchased from Hunan Slack King of Laboratory Animal Co., Ltd. (Changsha, China). CD133⁺ and CD133⁻ populations were sorted from two primary tumors (tumor 3 and tumor 4), and from sphere-forming cells using FACS. Cells were routinely sorted twice, and reanalyzed for a purity, which was typically $> 90\%$. Sorted cells were resuspended in PBS/Matrigel mixture (1:1 volume). The mice were anesthetized using ethyl ether and 10 000 tumor cells were

injected subcutaneously into the abdominal region, using a gauge needle. The mice were maintained under standard conditions according to the institutional guidelines for animal care. Tumor appearance was inspected weekly by visual observation and palpation. Animal experiments were terminated 3 mo after cell injection.

Hematoxylin and eosin staining and immunohistochemistry

Primary tumor tissues and mouse xenografts were fixed in 10% formalin and embedded in paraffin. Sections were cut and stained with hematoxylin and eosin (HE) to assess tumor type. The sections were incubated with anti-human CA19-9 antibody (Abcam, UK) and secondary antibodies using an ImmunoPure ABC Staining kit (Santa Cruz, USA), according to standard immunohistochemical procedures. Negative controls containing no primary antibody were prepared. All microscopic images were captured as above.

Statistical analysis

Data were expressed as mean \pm SD and Student's *t* test was used to compare the differences between groups. Values of $P < 0.05$ were considered significant.

RESULTS

Spheroid formation

Previous studies indicated that CSCs could produce floating three-dimensional tumor spheroids under stem-cell-selective conditions^[18-21]. Based on these studies, we cultured primary human GBC cells in serum-free DMEM/F12 in an attempt to expand human GBC CSCs. Non-adherent spheres derived from human GBCs were observable after *in vitro* culture for 1 wk (Figure 1A), and these continued to expand for 2-3 wk in serum-free media. The spheres were dissociated and the resulting single cells were plated in the same stem-cell-selective medium; similar progeny spheres emerged after 2 wk (Figure 1B and C). This demonstrated that tumor sphere cells had self-renewing characteristics.

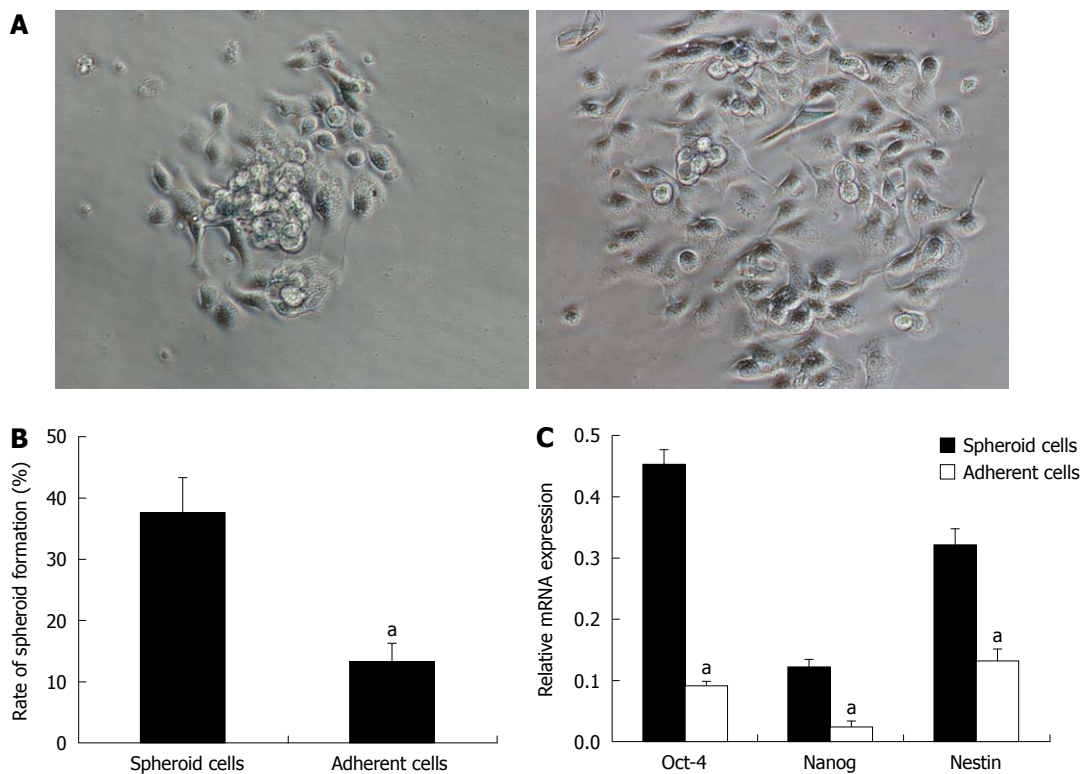


Figure 2 Differentiation of spheroid cells. Non-adherent spheres were collected and placed into DMEM/F12 supplemented with 10% fetal bovine serum. A: After 6 h, cells migrated from the spheres and became adherent and the sphere volume was significantly reduced (original magnification $\times 200$); B: The spheroid-colony-forming ability of spheroid cells decreased under differentiating conditions. ^a $P < 0.05$ vs spheroid cells under stem-cell-selective conditions; C: The expression levels of Oct-4, Nanog and nestin were examined using real-time quantitative reverse transcription-polymerase chain reaction. The stem cell markers were downregulated in the adherent cells. ^a $P < 0.05$ vs spheroid cells under stem-cell-selective conditions.

Sphere-forming cells displayed differentiation potential

Spheres were cultivated under differentiating conditions to determine the differentiation potential of the tumor sphere cells. After 6 h of culture, the floating tumor spheres attached to the bottom of the culture plates and cells migrated from the spheres and became adherent (Figure 2A). After 14 d of culture in differentiating conditions, the sphere-formation ability of the adherent cells was assayed. The spheroid-colony-forming ability decreased, compared with that of the original sphere-forming cells ($P < 0.05$, Figure 2B). The expression of stem cell markers, including Oct-4, Nanog and nestin, were examined using real-time RT-PCR. These markers indicate an undifferentiated stem cell phenotype^[22,23]. Spheroid cells showed higher expression of these markers than adherent cells ($P < 0.05$, Figure 2C), strongly supporting the idea that spheroid cells were differentiated in serum-containing medium.

Sphere-forming cells displayed high chemoresistance in vitro

Previous studies suggested that CSCs in several solid tumors possessed higher chemoresistance than non-CSCs^[24-26]. To examine if our spheroid cells also possessed a CSC chemoresistant phenotype, the chemosensitivities of these cells were assessed under stem-cell-selective vs differentiating conditions. Spheroid cells under stem-cell-selective conditions displayed a greater resistance to gem-

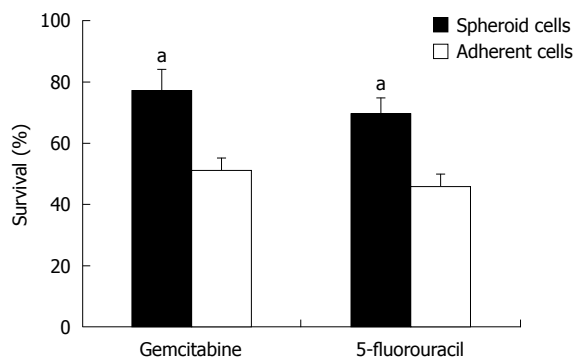


Figure 3 Chemoresistance assays of spheroid cells. Sphere-forming cells and differentiated cells were seeded in 96-well plates at 3000 cells/well. Chemotherapeutic reagents gemcitabine (1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) and 5-fluorouracil (0.1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$) were added and cell survival was estimated by 3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2)-2,5-diphenyltetrazolium bromide assay. ^a $P < 0.05$ vs differentiated cells.

citabine and 5-fluorouracil than those under differentiating conditions ($P < 0.05$, Figure 3).

CD133⁺ cells were enriched in tumor spheres

The expression pattern of a possible candidate cell surface marker for CSCs was examined in primary human GBC and in sphere-forming cells, using flow cytometry. CD133 was selected as a potential marker, based on the results of previous studies of CSCs in solid tumors. Flow cytometric analysis revealed that CD133⁺ cells were pres-

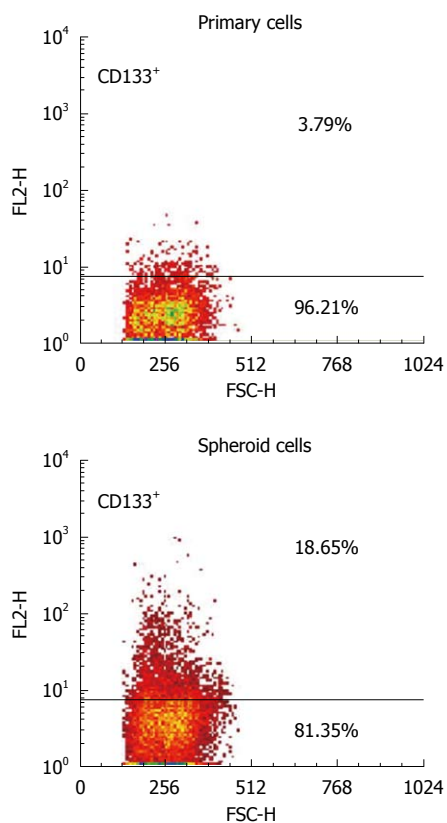


Figure 4 CD133 expression in gallbladder carcinoma spheroid cells. The single cells dissociated from primary tumors or spheres were incubated with anti-CD133/1-phycoerythrin and flow cytometric analysis was performed. The percentage of CD133⁺ cells was higher in the spheroid cells. $P < 0.05$ vs primary gallbladder carcinoma cells.

ent at relatively low percentages in samples from both primary tumors (3.79% in tumor 1 and 3.15% in tumor 2). The CD133⁺ populations, however, were significantly increased to 18.65% (tumor 1) and 21.54% (tumor 2) in the tumor spheres ($P < 0.05$, Figure 4). These results suggest that CD133 could be a candidate cellular surface marker for GBC progenitors.

CD133⁺ GBC cells showed higher spheroid-colony-forming ability *in vitro*

The growth of spherical colonies is considered to reflect the self-renewal ability and phenotype of CSCs^[16]. CD133⁺ cells were isolated from spheres and placed into stem-cell-selective conditions. After *in vitro* culture for 2 wk, the total number of spheroid colonies containing more than 20 cells was counted, and CD133⁺ cells generated more spheroid colonies than the CD133⁻ fractions ($P < 0.01$, Figure 5). These results suggest that the CD133⁺ subset plays a dominant role in the spheroids.

CD133⁺ GBC cells showed higher tumorigenicity *in vivo*

To authenticate the *in vitro* findings, sorted GBC cells were transplanted into nude mice. An apparent difference in tumorigenicity was observed between the cell populations ($P < 0.05$, Table 1, Figure 6A). It was found that 10⁴ CD133⁺ GBC cells were able to generate tumors in six

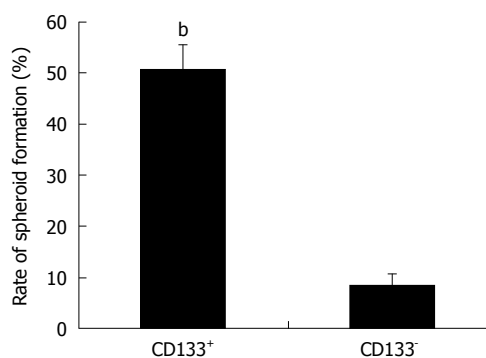


Figure 5 Spheroid-colony-formation assay of CD133⁺ cells. Sphere-forming cells were isolated by fluorescence-activated cell sorting for marker CD133 and cultured in 96-well plates in serum-free medium (10 cells per well) containing human epidermal growth factor (20 ng/mL) and basic fibroblast growth factor (10 ng/mL). After 2 wk, the total number of spheroid colonies containing more than 20 cells was counted. CD133⁺ cells generated more spheroid colonies. ^b $P < 0.01$.

Table 1 Tumorigenicity of CD133⁺ and CD133⁻ cells sorted from primary gallbladder carcinomas or spheroids

Cell type	Fraction	1st mo	2nd mo	3rd mo ^a
Spheroid cells	CD133 ⁺	1/6	3/6	6/6
	CD133 ⁻	0/6	0/6	1/6
Tumor 3	CD133 ⁺	0/3	1/3	3/3
	CD133 ⁻	0/3	0/3	1/3
Tumor 4	CD133 ⁺	1/3	2/3	3/3
	CD133 ⁻	0/3	0/3	0/3

Freshly-sorted cells were injected subcutaneously into the abdominal regions of nude mice at a dose of 10000 cells. ^a $P < 0.05$.

out of six or three out of three nude mice after 9-12 wk, while the same number of CD133⁻ cells induced tumors in only one out of six or one out of three nude mice, with smaller mass and longer latency. HE staining and immunohistochemistry demonstrated that the xenografts in the immunodeficient mice were generated from the injected human GBC cells. The xenograft tumors revealed similar histologic characteristics and expression of CA19-9 to those of the primary GBC (Figure 6B). Taken together, these results indicate that CD133⁺ GBC cells exhibited cancer stem-cell-like characteristics, strongly supporting the existence of tumor-initiating cells in this population.

DISCUSSION

A number of studies have demonstrated the presence of CSCs in solid tumors. These cells possess the abilities of self-renewal and differentiation, high tumorigenicity, and resistance to current treatments^[10-15]. In this study, we described the characterization of CSCs in human GBC. Previous studies showed that tumor spheres could be generated from tumor cells in serum-free medium and that the constituent cells exhibited the properties of CSCs, including self-renewal, differentiation potential, chemotherapy resistance, and high tumorigenicity^[11,14].

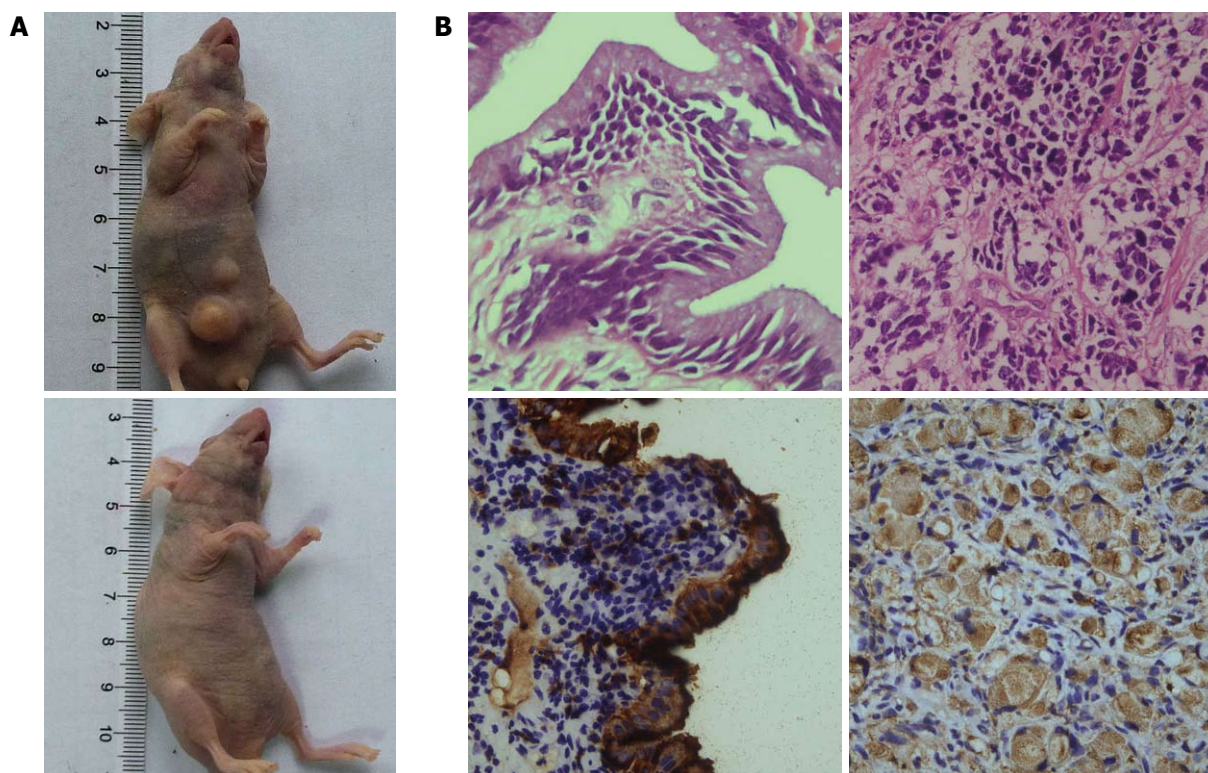


Figure 6 Xenograft formation of CD133⁺ gallbladder carcinoma cells. Sorted cells were injected subcutaneously into the abdominal regions of nude mice at a dose of 10 000 cells. A: CD133⁺ cells produced palpable xenograft tumors at the injection site, whereas CD133⁻ cells generated no tumors; B: Hematoxylin and eosin staining of xenograft and expression of CA19-9 (original magnification × 200).

In our experiments, primary GBC cells formed tumor spheres when cultivated under stem-cell-selective conditions similar to those reported previously. The self-renewal and differentiation potentials, proliferation ability and chemosensitivity of the sphere-forming cells were assessed. These cells displayed CSC properties by regenerating new tumor spheres in serum-free medium, over-expressing stem cell markers and showing a higher resistance to chemotherapeutic reagents, while these features were diminished under differentiating conditions. These results indicate that CSCs were enriched in these floating GBC spheres.

Cell surface markers of CSCs can help distinguish, isolate and purify these tumor-initiating cells for further biological investigation. The protein CD133 is cell surface marker for CSCs in brain tumor^[11], Ewing's sarcoma^[15] and liver cancers^[26]. The development and differentiation of human bile ducts and liver are closely related; both start from hepatic endodermal cells and hepatoblasts just after liver primordium formation. We therefore selected CD133 as a potential CSC marker in the current study, and detected its expression in primary GBC and in sphere-forming cells. CD133⁺ cells comprised a small fraction of the total tumor population in all three samples studied, but represented an increased percentage of the sphere-forming cells. This suggests that CD133 could act as a cell surface marker for CSCs in GBC. We also investigated the use of this cell surface protein as a candidate marker to further identify the CSC phenotype in GBC. The self-renewal ability of CD133⁺ cells was

tested using spheroid-forming assays in serum-free medium. CD133⁺ cells possessed higher clonogenicity than their antigen-negative counterparts. Subsequent *in vivo* tumorigenesis experiments demonstrated that CD133⁺ cells possessed higher tumorigenicity than the CD133⁻ subpopulation. Furthermore, the tumors generated in nude mice displayed the same phenotype as the primary GBC tissue. Taken together, these results firmly suggest that CD133⁺ cells possess the potentials for self-renewal and high tumorigenicity, exhibiting cancer stem-cell-like characteristics in human GBC.

The internal relationship between the expression of CD133 and the characteristics of CSCs remains unclear. Previous studies suggested that CD133 expression was associated with cell motility in melanoma^[27] and colorectal cancer cells^[28], and a high level of CD133 was also associated with increased resistance to staurosporine-inducing apoptosis^[28]. These associations may be due to the interaction between CD133 and the canonical Wnt pathway^[27]. However, the role of CD133 in these biological activities remains to be further clarified.

In summary, the results of this study demonstrate that CSCs are enriched in non-adherent spheres derived from GBC cells, and that CD133 protein may represent a cell surface marker for this cell population.

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COMMENTS

Background

Gallbladder carcinoma (GBC) is the most common malignant neoplasm of the biliary tract and the seventh most common gastrointestinal cancer. Emerging evidence has shown that the abilities for tumor growth and propagation reside in a small population of tumor cells, termed cancer stem cells (CSCs) or tumor-initiating cells.

Research frontiers

Tumor-initiating cells with distinct cell surface markers have recently been identified in various solid tumors. In this study, the authors demonstrate that primary human GBC cells also contain tumor-initiating cells and that CD133 protein may be a cell surface marker for this cell population.

Innovations and breakthroughs

Previous studies have suggested that CD133 expression is associated with cell motility and is a cell surface marker for tumor-initiating cells in some tumors. This is the first study to report upregulation of CD133 in spheroids derived from primary human GBC cells. Furthermore, the *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies suggest that CD133 protein may represent a cell surface marker for CSCs in GBC.

Applications

This study may provide a novel approach to the diagnosis and treatment of GBC.

Peer review

The presented manuscript deals with extremely thrilling issue of cancer development. It should be of great interest for the readers reflecting progress in our comprehension of carcinogenesis.

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Pseudopneumoperitoneum in chronic intestinal pseudo-obstruction: A case report

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Abstract

Chronic intestinal pseudo-obstruction (CIPO) is a rare disease due to a severe gastrointestinal motility disorder which may mimic, on both clinical and radiological grounds, mechanical obstruction. We report a case of a 26-year-old woman who presented to our institution for plain abdominal radiography for referred long-lasting constipation with recurrent episodes of abdominal pain and distension. At X-ray, performed both in the upright and supine position, an isolated air-fluid level was depicted in the left flank, together with a number of radiological signs suggestive of pneumoperitoneum. First, subphrenic radiolucency could be observed in the upright film. Second, the intestinal wall of some jejunal loops appeared to be outlined in the right flank. Third, the inferior cardiac border was clearly depicted in the upright film. The patient however had no evidence of

peritoneal signs but only hypoactive bowel movements. Unenhanced multi-detector computed tomography (MDCT) of the abdomen and pelvis was therefore performed. MDCT revealed abnormal air-driven distension of the small and large bowel, without evidence of extraluminal air. All radiological signs of pneumoperitoneum turned out to be false-positive results. The patient was submitted to pan-colonoscopy and to anorectal manometry to rule out Hirshsprung's disease, and was finally discharged with a diagnosis of CIPO.

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Key words: Pseudopneumoperitoneum; Abdominal radiography; Multi-detector computed tomography; Motility disorders; Chronic intestinal pseudo-obstruction

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INTRODUCTION

Chronic intestinal pseudo-obstruction (CIPO) is a rare motility disorder of the gastrointestinal (GI) tract that is usually observed in a number of different neuropathies, mesenchymopathies or myopathies, but it can also be idiopathic^[1]. It is characterized by failure of the GI tract to propel its content and may result in a clinical picture mimicking mechanical obstruction, with patients complaining of recurrent episodes of abdominal distension,

with or without abdominal pain, nausea and vomiting^[2].

The diagnosis of CIPO is mainly clinical and is usually postulated after exclusion of any organic lesion occluding the gut lumen at endoscopy, while it can be supported by radiographic documentation of dilated small and/or large bowel loops, without evidence of a definite transition zone. This, in adults, is now best accomplished by multi-detector computed tomography (MDCT), which can obviate the need for unnecessary laparotomy^[3]. However, plain abdominal films are one of the most important examinations in the diagnosis of CIPO in which abnormal air-driven distension of both small and large bowel is usually depicted^[4].

Here, we report a case of a 26-year-old woman who presented to our institution for plain abdominal radiography as part of clinical and radiological work-up for referred long-lasting constipation with recurrent episodes of abdominal pain and distension. At X-ray, an isolated air-fluid level could be observed in the left flank region, together with a number of radiological signs suggestive of pneumoperitoneum. These could be appreciated both in the upright and supine films, but turned out to be false-positive results, as an unenhanced MDCT scan failed to show evidence of extra-luminal air in the peritoneal cavity.

CASE REPORT

A 26-year-old woman with a history of recurrent episodes of abdominal pain and distension came to our institution to undergo plain abdominal radiography. Abdominal plain films were obtained both in the upright (Figure 1A) and supine (Figure 1B) position. The upright film showed an isolated air-fluid level in the left flank region, consistent with an obstruction of the descending colon, together with a number of X-ray findings suggestive of pneumoperitoneum. First, subphrenic radiolucencies were clearly depicted on both sides in the upright film. Second, the inferior cardiac border could be observed from the cardiac apex to the inferior vena cava. Third, the intestinal wall of some jejunal loops appeared to be outlined in the right flank (Figure 1A). This latter finding was also evident in the supine film, configuring the so-called bas-relief or Rigler's sign together with the lack of normal hepatic shadow in the right subphrenic space, the so-called hyperlucent liver sign (Figure 1B). Based on these X-ray findings, the on-call radiologist immediately contacted the referring physician to communicate a diagnosis of pneumoperitoneum.

At physical examination, however, only a large abdominal distension with hypoactive bowel could be observed, but no peritoneal signs. It was therefore agreed upon to perform MDCT (Aquilion 4; Toshiba, Japan). This was performed with a detector configuration of 4 × 5 mm, table speed 30 mm/s, rotation time = 0.5 s, beam pitch = 0.75, 120 kVp, 250 mA. Only unenhanced acquisition was performed. The MDCT scan showed marked dilation of the large bowel, with both hepatic and splenic

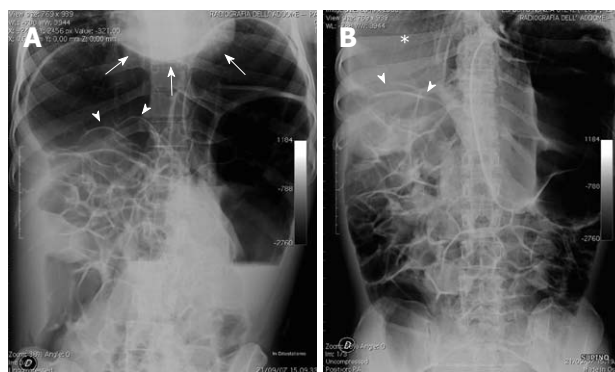


Figure 1 Upright (A) and supine (B) films in a female patient complaining of long-lasting constipation, with recurrent episodes of abdominal pain and distension. A: An isolated air-fluid level is depicted in the left flank, suggesting mechanical obstruction at the level of the descending colon. Subphrenic radiolucency is evident on both sides, together with the outlining of the intestinal wall of some small bowel loops in the right flank (arrowheads) and that of the inferior cardiac border (arrows); B: Outline of the intestinal wall of small bowel loops appears to be depicted in the right flank (arrowheads), configuring the so-called bas-relief or Rigler's sign. In addition, hyperlucency is depicted in the right subphrenic space in place of the normal hepatic shadow, configuring the bright or hyperlucent liver sign (*).

flexures displaced underneath the diaphragm (Figure 2A). Air-driven distension involved both small (Figure 2B) and large bowel (Figure 2C) loops. There was no evidence of any obstructive lesion and both the sigmoid colon and rectum were normally filled with feces (Figure 2D). No evidence of free air in the peritoneal cavity was found, therefore, a diagnosis of pneumoperitoneum could not be confirmed.

Further clinical, biochemical and instrumental investigation involving pan-colonoscopy and anorectal manometry revealed no underlying causes, and the patient was finally discharged with a diagnosis of CIPO.

DISCUSSION

Pneumoperitoneum is usually referred to as the presence of free air within the peritoneal cavity. Its radiological diagnosis usually relies on the evidence of typical subphrenic radiolucency in the posterior-anterior projection taken in the upright position^[5]. As a result, the term pseudopneumoperitoneum is used when the subphrenic radiolucency does not correspond to free intraperitoneal air^[6], but can be traced to either subphrenic fat pad^[7] or basal lung atelectasis^[8]. In these cases, the clarifying role of CT has been acknowledged^[9].

To the best of our knowledge, whereas the possible occurrence of pneumoperitoneum in CIPO has been described^[10], the occurrence of pseudopneumoperitoneum in CIPO has not been reported to date. In our case, subphrenic radiolucency depicted in the upright film (Figure 1A) was due to hepatic and splenic colonic flexures abnormally dilated and displaced below the diaphragmatic shadows, as shown by CT (Figure 2A).

In the emergency setting, prompt recognition of radiological signs of pneumoperitoneum in the anterior-

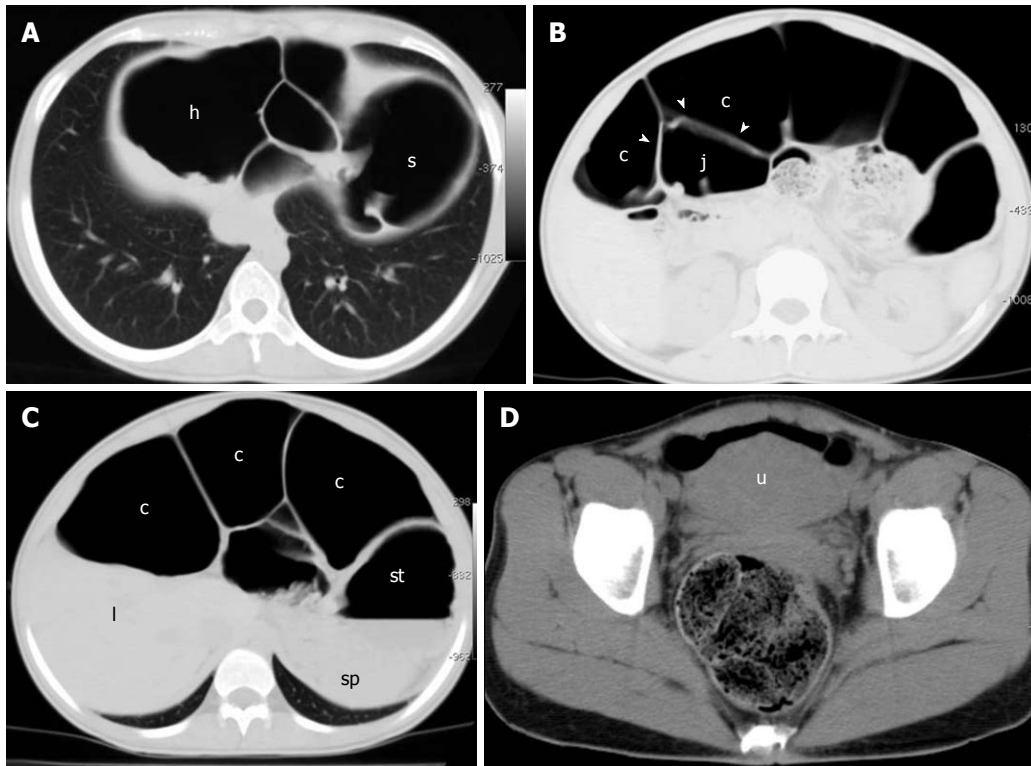


Figure 2 Unenhanced four-row MDCT. Images are displayed with lung (A-C) and soft tissue (D) windows. A: Hepatic (h) and splenic (s) flexures, air-filled and abnormally dilated, are displaced under the diaphragm, accounting for the subphrenic radiolucency depicted in the upright film; B: Intraluminal air in the large bowel (c) appears to outline the intestinal wall (arrowheads) of a jejunal loop (j) that is also mildly dilated and air-filled, accounting for the Rigler's sign depicted on the upright and supine films; C: Abnormally dilated colonic segment situated between the liver (l) and anterior abdominal wall, simulating the hyperlucent (bright) liver sign depicted in the supine film; st: Stomach; sp: Spleen; D: Rectum is normally filled with feces. u: Uterus.

posterior projection taken in the supine position may be of diagnostic value because it allows a confident diagnosis of pneumoperitoneum whenever an L-L projection is not available or cannot be performed^[11].

These radiological signs, which can be mostly traced to either the intestinal wall^[12] or various peritoneal folds^[13-15], outlined by the presence of free air within the peritoneal cavity, have been recently revised and classified into four major categories as bowel-related signs, right upper quadrant signs, peritoneal ligament signs, and other signs^[16].

For at least one of these signs, namely the Rigler's sign, the possible occurrence of false-positive cases is well acknowledged. Rigler's sign can be simulated by two contiguous, moderately dilated and air-filled loops of bowel, whereby intraluminal air in one loop of bowel may appear to outline the wall of the adjacent loop^[17]. These false-positives cases, however, have only been reported in the supine film where the sign itself was originally described^[12]. To the best of our knowledge, the occurrence of a false-positive Rigler's sign in the upright position has never been described. As shown by MDCT, the intestinal wall of some jejunal loops was in our case outlined by intraluminal air in the large bowel, which was abnormally dilated (Figure 2B). The anomalous dislocation of jejunal loops in the right flank was not further investigated, although it was likely due to concomitant malrotation.

Possible occurrence of false-positive results for the

inferior cardiac border sign were also postulated in the original description. The inferior border of the heart becomes visible on supine radiography whenever it is outlined by air; either free air in the peritoneal cavity, such as in pneumoperitoneum, or air within the pleural and/or pericardial sac. Occasionally, gas-filled loops collected beneath the left hemi-diaphragm may simulate this sign^[18]. As with Rigler's sign, these false-positive signs are also expected to occur in the supine position and not in the upright. In our case, however, the sign could not be detected in the supine film because of suboptimal technical positioning (Figure 1B).

Finally, the hyperlucent liver sign which could be observed on the supine film (Figure 1B) also turned out to be a false-positive result because it was clearly due to the interposition of dilated, air-filled large bowel loops between the liver and the anterior abdominal wall, as shown by MDCT (Figure 2C). To the best of our knowledge, false-positive cases of hyperlucent liver sign have never been reported.

In the present case, MDCT not only ruled out the radiological diagnosis of pneumoperitoneum but it also excluded mechanical obstruction, and showed that the sigmoid colon and rectum were normally filled with feces, without evidence of a transition zone (Figure 2D). As this latter CT finding is rather atypical in patients with Hirschsprung's disease^[19], this was also excluded by anorectal manometry, which revealed a normal inhibitory

rectoanal reflex^[20]. The patient was therefore discharged with a diagnosis of CIPO.

We have described a case of pseudopneumoperitoneum in a patient with CIPO. All radiological findings of pneumoperitoneum that were clearly depicted in the upright and supine films turned out to be false-positive results, as shown by MDCT. To the best of our knowledge, such a case has not been reported to date.

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Hepatocellular carcinoma and industrial epidemics

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Abstract

Worldwide, the burden of the non viral causes of hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is usually underestimated. Clearly industrial goods, tobacco, alcohol and processed foods are the agents of new epidemics in modern times which far outscore the burden of infectious agents on morbidity and mortality. Smoking, a dose-related contributing factor for HCC, receives too little attention in clinical practice. In France, tobacco, hepatitis B and C virus and alcohol are the main risk factors for HCC mortality (33%, 31% and 26%, respectively). In developing countries, where tobacco consumption is dramatically increasing, this epidemic may soon surpass hepatitis B. Obesity and diabetes are the contributing factors too. The role of industrial processed foods in the increase of the prevalence of obesity and diabetes cannot be ignored.

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Key words: Hepatocellular carcinoma; Tobacco; Alcohol; Processed foods; Industrial epidemics

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TO THE EDITOR

Worldwide, hepatocellular carcinoma (HCC) is the fifth most common cancer and the third most common cause of cancer-related death. The Journal must be acknowledged for the publication of Blonski *et al*^[1] review who wisely underlined the burden of non viral causes of HCC which are usually underestimated.

Blonski *et al*^[1] rightly stressed the role of smoking, a dose related contributing factor for HCC, and this is important because some are still ignoring it^[2]. In France, tobacco, hepatitis B and C virus and alcohol are the main risk factors for HCC mortality (33%, 31% and 26%, respectively)^[3,4].

Blonski *et al*^[1] also listed obesity and diabetes as contributing factors for HCC. The role of industrial processed foods in the increase of the prevalence of obesity and diabetes cannot be ignored.

Clearly industrial goods, tobacco, alcohol and processed foods are the agents of new epidemics in modern times which far outscore the burden of infectious agents on morbidity and mortality.

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Events Calendar 2011

- January 14-15, 2011
 AGA Clinical Congress of Gastroenterology and Hepatology: Best Practices in 2011 Miami, FL 33101, United States
- January 20-22, 2011
 Gastrointestinal Cancers Symposium 2011, San Francisco, CA 94143, United States
- January 27-28, 2011
 Falk Workshop, Liver and Immunology, Medical University, Franz-Josef-Strauss-Allee 11, 93053 Regensburg, Germany
- January 28-29, 2011
 9. Gastro Forum München, Munich, Germany
- February 4-5, 2011
 13th Duesseldorf International Endoscopy Symposium, Duesseldorf, Germany
- February 13-27, 2011
 Gastroenterology: New Zealand CME Cruise Conference, Sydney, NSW, Australia
- February 17-20, 2011
 APASL 2011-The 21st Conference of the Asian Pacific Association for the Study of the Liver Bangkok, Thailand
- February 22, 2011-March 04, 2011
 Canadian Digestive Diseases Week 2011, Vancouver, BC, Canada
- February 24-26, 2011
 Inflammatory Bowel Diseases 2011-6th Congress of the European Crohn's and Colitis Organisation, Dublin, Ireland
- February 24-26, 2011
 2nd International Congress on Abdominal Obesity, Buenos Aires, Brazil
- February 24-26, 2011
 International Colorectal Disease Symposium 2011, Hong Kong, China
- February 26-March 1, 2011
 Canadian Digestive Diseases Week, Westin Bayshore, Vancouver, British Columbia, Canada
- February 28-March 1, 2011
 Childhood & Adolescent Obesity: A whole-system strategic approach, Abu Dhabi, United Arab Emirates
- March 3-5, 2011
 42nd Annual Topics in Internal Medicine, Gainesville, FL 32614, United States
- March 7-11, 2011
 Infectious Diseases: Adult Issues in the Outpatient and Inpatient Settings, Sarasota, FL 34234, United States
- March 14-17, 2011
 British Society of Gastroenterology Annual Meeting 2011, Birmingham, England, United Kingdom
- March 17-19, 2011
 41. Kongress der Deutschen Gesellschaft für Endoskopie und Bildgebende Verfahren e.V., Munich, Germany
- March 17-20, 2011
 Mayo Clinic Gastroenterology & Hepatology 2011, Jacksonville, FL 34234, United States
- March 18, 2011
 UC Davis Health Informatics: Change Management and Health Informatics, The Keys to Health Reform, Sacramento, CA 94143, United States
- March 25-27, 2011
 MedicRes IC 2011 Good Medical Research, Istanbul, Turkey
- March 26-27, 2011
 26th Annual New Treatments in Chronic Liver Disease, San Diego, CA 94143, United States
- April 6-7, 2011
 IBS-A Global Perspective, Pfister Hotel, 424 East Wisconsin Avenue, Milwaukee, WI 53202, United States
- April 7-9, 2011
 International and Interdisciplinary Conference Excellence in Female Surgery, Florence, Italy
- April 15-16, 2011
 Falk Symposium 177, Endoscopy Live Berlin 2011 Intestinal Disease Meeting, Stauffenbergstr. 26, 10785 Berlin, Germany
- April 18-22, 2011
 Pediatric Emergency Medicine: Detection, Diagnosis and Developing Treatment Plans, Sarasota, FL 34234, United States
- April 20-23, 2011
 9th International Gastric Cancer Congress, COEX, World Trade Center, Samseong-dong, Gangnam-gu, Seoul 135-731, South Korea
- April 25-27, 2011
 The Second International Conference of the Saudi Society of Pediatric Gastroenterology, Hepatology & Nutrition, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia
- April 25-29, 2011
 Neurology Updates for Primary Care, Sarasota, FL 34230-6947, United States
- April 28-30, 2011
 4th Central European Congress of Surgery, Budapest, Hungary
- May 7-10, 2011
 Digestive Disease Week, Chicago, IL 60446, United States
- May 12-13, 2011
 2nd National Conference Clinical Advances in Cystic Fibrosis, London, England, United Kingdom
- May 19-22, 2011
 1st World Congress on Controversies in the Management of Viral Hepatitis (C-Hep), Palau de Congressos de Catalunya, Av. Diagonal, 661-671 Barcelona 08028, Spain
- May 21-24, 2011
 22nd European Society of Gastrointestinal and Abdominal Radiology Annual Meeting and Postgraduate Course, Venice, Italy
- May 25-28, 2011
 4th Congress of the Gastroenterology Association of Bosnia and Herzegovina with international participation, Hotel Holiday Inn, Sarajevo, Bosnia and Herzegovina
- June 11-12, 2011
 The International Digestive Disease Forum 2011, Hong Kong, China
- June 13-16, 2011
 Surgery and Disillusion XXIV SPIGC, II ESYS, Napoli, Italy
- June 14-16, 2011
 International Scientific Conference on Probiotics and Prebiotics-IPC2011, Kosice, Slovakia
- June 22-25, 2011
 ESMO Conference: 13th World Congress on Gastrointestinal Cancer, Barcelona, Spain
- June 29-2, 2011
 XI Congreso Interamericano de Pediatría "Monterrey 2011", Monterrey, Mexico
- September 2-3, 2011
 Falk Symposium 178, Diverticular Disease, A Fresh Approach to a Neglected Disease, Gürzenich Cologne, Martinstr. 29-37, 50667 Cologne, Germany
- September 10-11, 2011
 New Advances in Inflammatory Bowel Disease, La Jolla, CA 92093, United States
- September 10-14, 2011
 ICE 2011-International Congress of Endoscopy, Los Angeles Convention Center, 1201 South Figueroa Street Los Angeles, CA 90015, United States
- September 30-October 1, 2011
 Falk Symposium 179, Revisiting IBD Management: Dogmas to be Challenged, Sheraton Brussels Hotel, Place Rogier 3, 1210 Brussels, Belgium
- October 19-29, 2011
 Cardiology & Gastroenterology | Tahiti 10 night CME Cruise, Papeete, French Polynesia
- October 22-26, 2011
 19th United European Gastroenterology Week, Stockholm, Sweden
- October 28-November 2, 2011
 ACG Annual Scientific Meeting & Postgraduate Course, Washington, DC 20001, United States
- November 11-12, 2011
 Falk Symposium 180, IBD 2011: Progress and Future for Lifelong Management, ANA Interconti Hotel, 1-12-33 Akasaka, Minato-ku, Tokyo 107-0052, Japan
- December 1-4, 2011
 2011 Advances in Inflammatory Bowel Diseases/Crohn's & Colitis Foundation's Clinical & Research Conference, Hollywood, FL 34234, United States

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Acknowledgments

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Chinese journal article (list all authors and include the PMID where applicable)

- 2 **Lin GZ**, Wang XZ, Wang P, Lin J, Yang FD. Immunologic effect of Jianpi Yishen decoction in treatment of Pixu-diarrhoea. *Shijie Huaren Xiaobua Zazhi* 1999; **7**: 285-287

In press

- 3 **Tian D**, Araki H, Stahl E, Bergelson J, Kreitman M. Signature of balancing selection in Arabidopsis. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2006; In press

Organization as author

- 4 **Diabetes Prevention Program Research Group**. Hypertension, insulin, and proinsulin in participants with impaired glucose tolerance. *Hypertension* 2002; **40**: 679-686 [PMID: 12411462 PMID:2516377 DOI:10.1161/01.HYP.0000035706.28494.09]

Both personal authors and an organization as author

- 5 **Vallancien G**, Emberton M, Harving N, van Moorseelaar RJ, Alf-One Study Group. Sexual dysfunction in 1, 274 European men suffering from lower urinary tract symptoms. *J Urol* 2003; **169**: 2257-2261 [PMID: 12771764 DOI:10.1097/01.ju.0000067940.76090.73]

No author given

- 6 21st century heart solution may have a sting in the tail. *BMJ* 2002; **325**: 184 [PMID: 12142303 DOI:10.1136/bmj.325.7357.184]

Volume with supplement

- 7 **Geraud G**, Spierings EL, Keywood C. Tolerability and safety of frovatriptan with short- and long-term use for treatment of migraine and in comparison with sumatriptan. *Headache* 2002; **42** Suppl 2: S93-99 [PMID: 12028325 DOI:10.1046/j.1526-4610.42.s2.7.x]

Issue with no volume

- 8 **Banit DM**, Kaufer H, Hartford JM. Intraoperative frozen section analysis in revision total joint arthroplasty. *Clin Orthop Relat Res* 2002; (**401**): 230-238 [PMID: 12151900 DOI:10.1097/00003086-200208000-00026]

No volume or issue

- 9 Outreach: Bringing HIV-positive individuals into care. *HRSA Careaction* 2002; 1-6 [PMID: 12154804]

Books*Personal author(s)*

- 10 **Sherlock S**, Dooley J. Diseases of the liver and biliary system. 9th ed. Oxford: Blackwell Sci Pub, 1993: 258-296

Chapter in a book (list all authors)

- 11 **Lam SK**. Academic investigator's perspectives of medical treatment for peptic ulcer. In: Swabb EA, Azabo S. Ulcer disease: investigation and basis for therapy. New York: Marcel Dekker, 1991: 431-450

Author(s) and editor(s)

- 12 **Breedlove GK**, Schorfheide AM. Adolescent pregnancy. 2nd ed. Wiczorek RR, editor. White Plains (NY): March of Dimes Education Services, 2001: 20-34

Conference proceedings

- 13 **Harnden P**, Joffe JK, Jones WG, editors. Germ cell tumours V. Proceedings of the 5th Germ cell tumours Conference; 2001 Sep 13-15; Leeds, UK. New York: Springer, 2002: 30-56

Conference paper

- 14 **Christensen S**, Oppacher F. An analysis of Koza's computational effort statistic for genetic programming. In: Foster JA, Lutton E, Miller J, Ryan C, Tettamanzi AG, editors. Genetic programming. EuroGP 2002: Proceedings of the 5th European Conference on Genetic Programming; 2002 Apr 3-5; Kinsdale, Ireland. Berlin: Springer, 2002: 182-191

Electronic journal (list all authors)

- 15 Morse SS. Factors in the emergence of infectious diseases. Emerg Infect Dis serial online, 1995-01-03, cited 1996-06-05; 1(1): 24 screens. Available from: URL: <http://www.cdc.gov/ncidod/eid/index.htm>

Patent (list all authors)

- 16 **Pagedas AC**, inventor; Ancel Surgical R&D Inc., assignee. Flexible endoscopic grasping and cutting device and positioning tool assembly. United States patent US 20020103498. 2002 Aug 1

Statistical data

Write as mean \pm SD or mean \pm SE.

Statistical expression

Express *t* test as *t* (in italics), *F* test as *F* (in italics), chi square test as χ^2 (in Greek), related coefficient as *r* (in italics), degree of freedom as ν (in Greek), sample number as *n* (in italics), and probability as *P* (in italics).

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Italics

Quantities: *t* time or temperature, *c* concentration, *A* area, *l* length, *m* mass, *V* volume.

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